The Outlook

DECEMBER 6, 1916

Offices, 381 Fourth Avenue, New York

THE STORY OF THE WAR: THE INVASION OF RUMANIA

The two German armies under the command of General von Falkenhayn and General von Mackensen made notable progress during the week ending November 29 in their campaign against Rumania. It has been evident ever since the Rumanians were driven back from the territory they had gained in Transylvania and through the mountain passes into their own country that their army was open to attack from several directions. A glance at the map on the next page will show the position clearly.

The main advance of Falkenhayn's army was through the Vulcan Pass. By a sudden and startling march he advanced to the capture of Craiova, reported last week, so that the portion of the Rumanian army which was in extreme western Wallachia, often called "Little Wallachia," was cut off. It must now either surrender or fight to the last extremity. Meanwhile Falkenhayn's army poured in from the other passes. But the severest blow of all to Rumania's hopes has been the crossing of the Danube by General von Mackensen's troops, which have already reached Alexandria, a Rumanian city of 15,000 people, and the center of the great southern wheat district. It is reported that Mackensen and Falkenhayn are now in touch. Certainly Falkenhayn's forces are now to the east of the river Alt, which river and its valley play an important part in this campaign.

Military observers predict a wide Teuton sweep eastward through Wallachia. This already threatens Bucharest; and, indeed, as we write it is reported that the Rumanian civil and governmental authorities have abandoned Bucharest and have gone to Jassy, which is about two hundred miles northeast. Unquestionably the only large line of retreat for the Rumanian forces is now out of Wallachia and into northern Rumania, which, through Moldavia, forms the line of connection with Russia. That aid to Rumania can under the present conditions be extended immediately only by Russia is perfectly evident. General Sarrail will, no doubt, in due time advance up the Vardar directly or through his advanced left wing, now at Monastir, but to expect him to conduct and complete the advance and to capture Nish in a few days, or even a few weeks, would be to ask the impossible.

The mystery of what seems now the exceeding unwisdom of the Rumanian campaign remains unsolved. As we have said before, it certainly displayed a total lack of "team work" among the Allies in the Balkans. Whether Rumania acted independently and without the approval of her allies in her invasion of Transylvania, which left her own southern and western frontiers exposed to the enemy; whether in doing so she relied too optimistically upon immediate support from Russia; whether the Allies' leaders did not believe that Germany could quickly mass together an army adequate for the instant invasion of Rumania; or whether Russia undertook to play the part of guardian of Rumania and failed to get her forces on the ground in time—all this is now open for discussion, but the facts upon which to decide the question of responsibility are lacking.

Rumania's plight, it should be remembered, does not by any means involve or imply the defeat of the Allies in the Balkans. In a certain sense they stand where they did before Rumania entered the contest, with the advantage that Germany must have expended a great deal of force and munitions in the attack upon Rumania, and that the eastern section of Rumania is still open for the advance southward of Russian armies.

SUBMARINES, MINES AND ZEPPELINS

Another American war question arose last week when news came that the American steamship Chemung had been sunk by a submarine off the coast of Andalusia in Spain. Accounts differ as to whether the submarine was German or Austrian. The crew were

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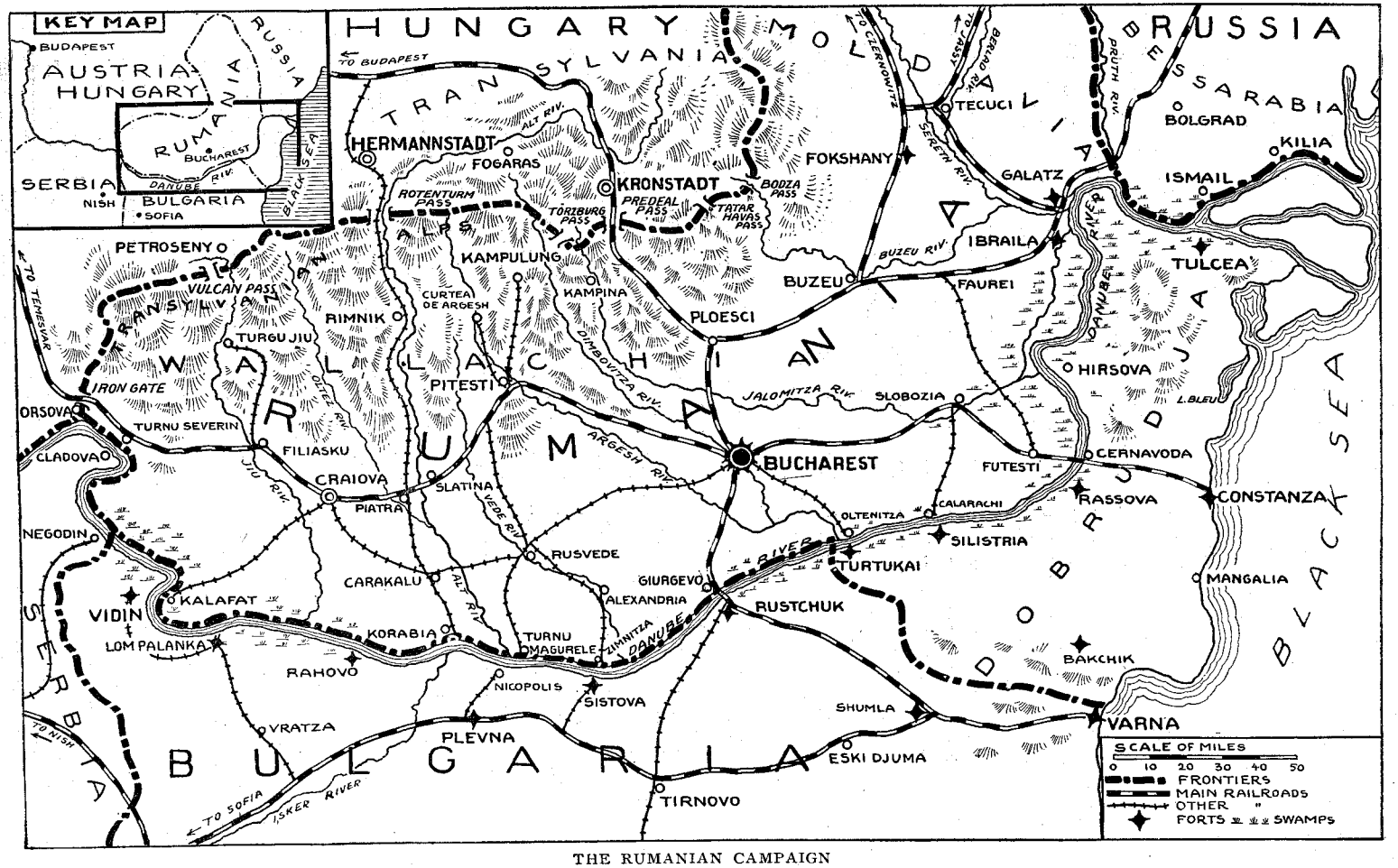

THE RUMANIAN CAMPAIGN

The Rumanian situation, described in The Story of the War, is here graphically shown. Wallachia and the Dobrudja make up southern Rumania, while Moldavia and territory to the north make up northern Rumania. Little Wallachia is the western section of southern Rumania. Note on the Danube Zimnitza (where Mackensen crossed, advancing to Alexandria) and Cernavoda, where he holds the railway bridge. Note also what an important part rivers, especially the Alt, and railways play in this campaign. The key map in the corner shows Rumania's relations to her neighbors

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saved in boats. A thrill of pride has been felt by Americans who read that the captain refused to lower the American colors, and that his flag went down with the ship after it had been shelled by the enemy.

It is claimed that the vessel carried contraband of war, and it is remembered that when the case of an American vessel, the William P. Frye, was under debate, the German Foreign Office promised that American merchantmen carrying conditional contraband would not be destroyed, but that Germany reserved a claim of right to destroy vessels carrying absolute contraband when this destruction was allowed under the provisions of the Declaration of London and with safety to passengers and crew. Numerous other ships, not only British but neutral, as Norwegian and Swedish, have been recently destroyed by German submarines apparently either under the same plea as that just set forth above or on an assertion that the vessels attempted to flee or to resist capture.

The subject of mines in the high seas is one that we could well wish were illuminated by discussion; but in order to discuss the question the facts as to the laying of mines, as to the presence of floating mines, and as to observance of the rule that mines should be so constructed that they would soon become harmless if they floated without restraint, must first be obtained.

The destruction of the hospital ship Britannic, with a loss of many lives (put variously at from thirty to fifty), naturally aroused intense indignation. Berlin's defense has consisted of a statement that the Britannic was not sunk by a German submarine, and an intimation that the Britannic was being used for transport purposes. The last statement is emphatically denied and seems to have no basis of fact. Later it was asserted that the destruction of the Britannic was caused, not by a submarine but by a mine, and British despatches seem to recognize this as probable. But if so, there seems to be no information as to who laid the mine, or, if it were a floating mine, from what source it came or by what nation it was made. A similar state of doubt seems to exist about the facts as to the sinking of another hospital ship, the Braemar Castle, in the Ægean Sea, without loss of life.

The news of the week told of another raid by German Zeppelins over England, and the claim was made that two Zeppelins were brought down by British aeroplanes—one on the coast near Durham and one at sea. A large German aeroplane also visited England, but with very trifling damage; a few citizens were injured and one woman was killed.

PEACE, FORCE AND SECURITY

Three associations have recently been under public discussion in connection with the subjects of peace now, peace in the future, and peace through security.

It is well to distinguish between these three objects and the leagues which represent them, because a discussion about immediate peace has in part grown out of the meeting of the League to Enforce Peace, held in New York on November 25. That association has, strictly speaking, nothing to do with any effort to bring the present war to a close. It stands for a large future plan which aims to bring about such an agreement between the great nations of the world as would provide for the settlement of disputed questions peacefully, but would also provide a military arm by which the decrees of the associated nations could be enforced, if necessary.

But at the meeting of the League to Enforce Peace one of the important addresses was made by Mr. Jacob Schiff, who urgently declared that the League itself should not "sit still and wait for the moment when one or the other of the Powers now facing each other shall have become completely exhausted" before the new league of the nations should be brought into existence. And he declared also that the present conflict would continue until some powerful factor shall "step between these impassioned belligerents and persist until both sides name terms upon which peace may be discussed." This is, of course, an effort to bring about peace at once—an object not regarded with favor by an immense number of Americans and by many of the members of the League to Enforce Peace; an effort, also, as we believe, outside the province of the League.

Mr. Schiff's address has called out remonstrances from Mr. James M. Beck, one of the best of American writers and thinkers on this subject, and from other men of recognized ability. One ground of their objections is well stated by the New York "Times:" "No offer of mediation would be listened to by the Allied Powers. The tender of it would be resented as an unfriendly act." To this may be added Sir Robert Cecil's recent declaration: "So long as the Germans continue the Belgian slave raids and sinking

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of hospital ships there cannot be any thought of peace." And we may also add Mr. Hall Caine's statement of the English point of view: "We think such a peace would be treason to the dead, disloyalty to the living, an assault on the authority of government, an open appeal to the lawlessness of anarchy, a deliberate outrage on the principles of patriotism, and even on the sacred precepts of religion."

Nevertheless, there does exist a second association, called the American Neutral Conference Committee, which seems to believe that it is a perfectly easy matter to stop the war. Mr. Schiff, Mr. Oswald G. Villard, Mr. Hamilton Holt, and Dr. David Starr Jordan are among the prominent men in this association, and we have no doubt they are sincere in thinking that a joint conference of the neutral nations to bring about peace would be an act of humanity. We refer them, however, to such statements as those we have printed above and to their own common sense, which should warn them that a peace made now would be but the prelude of another war. As some one has said: "When there is a mad dog in the house, it is not the time to say, 'Poor pussy, poor pussy!'" We are glad to note that Mr. Robert Fulton Cutting, Mr. Theodore Marburg, and, we believe, one or two others have announced that they were opposed to the aims of this American Neutral Conference and that their names were used in connection with the call for that conference without their consent.

Finally, the third association to which we refer is the National Security League, the aims and purpose of which we commend in the most unreserved terms. It stands for preparedness, efficiency, and a practical programme which will make the Nation secure because prepared and efficient. This League will hold a congress in Washington in January.

A WOMAN'S REPORT OF CONDITIONS IN GERMANY

To readers of Mrs. Gallison's account of her visit to Germany (the second installment of which appears in this number of The Outlook) it will be interesting to compare a very different report of conditions in Germany from another American woman. Miss Madeleine Z. Doty last summer went to Germany. In part, at least, her purpose was to carry aid to underfed German babies; but it was in part to observe conditions there. Her report is appearing on successive Sundays in the New York "Tribune" and in the Chicago "Tribune." Miss Doty is well known for what she has done on behalf of prison reform.

She found the German people suffering from physical privations and the mental strain of war. The food that she had, except in the very best of hotels and in certain private homes, was inadequate. "Prison diet," she says, "does not promote health or strength. One can live on it, but patriotism and temper suffer." The people at a café which she describes were "shrunken, listless, distraught." She could not swallow the cakes that were served. "Only the music is cheerful," she says. "There is a revival of band playing in Germany. It is needed to hide the lack of laughter and talk. . . . Life has become mere existence, a prison existence." A satisfying meal she reports as a noteworthy experience. After one such meal she writes: "It seems cruel to eat of Germany's best, but I decided to live henceforth at the most expensive hotels."

Since her preceding visit the year before she reports a change in the attitude of the German people toward America:

> To-day the average person is pathetically eager to be friends. Slowly the people are awakening. For months the newspapers have fed them on the triumphs of Germany and the perfidy of other nations. But these stories of glorious German victories have resulted in what? A lean and barren country, under-nourishment, death, the hatred of other nations. The people begin to doubt their leaders.
>
> To call these people "barbarians" is an outrage. They are, like ourselves, just folks, kindly and generous, deceived and browbeaten by a ruthless military group.

Her account of being spied upon is amusing. She tells of doubling on her tracks when she went to visit a member of the Social Democratic party in order that she might avoid observation. She saw enough of spies to form the following impression:

> The funny thing about German spies is that they dress for the part. They are as unmistakable as Sherlock Holmes. They nearly always wear gray clothes, a soft gray hat, are pale-faced, shifty-eyed, smooth-shaven, or have only a slight mustache, and carry canes.

One spy she describes as standing out in the rain from three in the afternoon until nine o'clock. "I simply cannot take him seriously. My friend and I get into gales of laughter. I want to go out and invite him in to tea. He looks so miserable." "But," she acknowledges, "before I leave

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Germany the spies get on my nerves. What was at first amusing becomes a nuisance."

Even the horses show underfeeding. They are "chiefly valuable as a study in bone anatomy." She looks into their dinner-pails, and never finds there anything but chopped straw. She reverts to the appearance of the people. "They are thin. I didn't see a big girth anywhere." Food without grease, sugar, or meal she likens to "trying to run a wagon without oil. It begins to creak."

She describes the diet kitchens, and tells what good food can be had there. But "the day laborers cannot frequent city feeding kitchens. They cannot afford it. . . . Such places are a godsend to the middle class, the small storekeepers whose business has failed, clerks, and stenographers, but for the unskilled laborer the price is prohibitive."

She sums up the food situation in these words:

> The tragedy in Germany is not quick starvation, it is the underfeeding of a whole race. . . . It is hard to be discontented and progressive when the stomach is full and the land flows wih milk and honey. But suffering has come and a new race is emerging—a lean race, with active minds that begin to question German autocracy and militarism.

This is a very different picture from that which Mrs. Gallison draws for us, but we must remember that no one observer sees all. Mrs. Gallison goes to her friends and acquaintances. Miss Doty, on the other hand, is accustomed to observing people in the lower strata of life, and in Germany she sees privation and hardship.

The suffering that war has brought upon Germany is largely hidden from the outside world, but it is to be remembered that it is also largely hidden from a great part of the German people themselves.

A GAIN FOR RUSSIAN DEMOCRACY

Under the crust of the reactionary, autocratic governmental system of Russia there is the restless, liberty-loving, democratic, unorganized Russian people. Week before last new evidence of the power that lies in that Russian mass was supplied by the retirement of Prime Minister Sturmer. Though his successor, General Trepof, is not known as a liberal in any sense, he is not identified with the reactionary elements in Russia, as Sturmer was. Indeed, one thing may be regarded as clear: even if Trepof is conceded to be conservative, he at least offers a welcome substitute for a man who after a year in office as Prime Minister had by no means the reputation of being vigorous in the prosecution of the war. Though there was no indication when Sturmer was appointed that he belonged to the suspected pro-German clique in Russian plutocracy—that strange group that is allowed to intrigue in Russia on behalf of the interest of a nation with which Russia is at war—Sturmer was not anti-German in any such sense as the Russsian Prime Minister ought to be at this time if he is in sympathy with the present Russian will and purpose.

There is only one thing that can have brought about this retirement of Sturmer, and that is the growing power of public opinion in Russia to-day. The retirement of Sturmer is one of the most important happenings on behalf of Russian freedom that has occurred in recent years. Too much, however, must not be expected from it. There is no certainty that Trepof himself has any of the democratic point of view. But as a symptom it is of great importance. Russia belongs with France and England in this war on behalf of democracy, not because of the Russian Government, which is largely derived from Prussia, but because of the Russian people, who have struggled as few peoples have, and whose ultimate achievement of liberty no one who believes in democracy can doubt.

In a forthcoming issue Mr. Kennan, whose staff contributions to The Outlook, whose knowledge of Russian affairs, and whose gifts as a writer are well known to the readers of The Outlook, will tell some interesting facts which throw light upon this striking and in some respects sensational event.

CARRANZA'S BURDEN

Even if Carranza ratified the protocol signed by the American and Mexican Commissioners at Atlantic City on November 24, a tremendous burden would remain for the First Chief to lift before the protocol could become effective. That burden is Villa.

The first clause in the protocol is one for which the Mexican Commissioners have fought ever since the conferences began in September, namely, a guarantee of the withdrawal from Mexico of the Pershing expedition. But, as signed by the Commissioners, the protocol provides for the withdrawal from Mexico of the United States forces within forty days after the ratification of the agree-

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ment *unless new raids occur in the territory adjacent to that occupied by the American forces.*

The day after this was signed, and the day after Commissioner Alberto Pani left for Mexico to present the document to the First Chief, Pancho Villa was reported to have captured the city of Chihuahua! As we go to press Carranza is reported to be concentrating most of his forces in Chihuahua State around Juarez, which is felt to be in grave danger of capture by Villa.

With that proviso in the protocol and with the idol of northern Mexico making a serious bid for his former power, Carranza must recognize the fact that he is not yet relieved of responsibility.

Other clauses in the agreement provide that American forces may pursue raiders from Mexico across the border, and that if new raids do occur the United States "may alone or in conjunction with the Mexican troops disperse the marauders." Thus Carranza may have our direct help in eliminating Villa if he chooses. But in that case the withdrawal of Pershing's expedition would be postponed.

For the protocol to become effective it must be signed by President Wilson and Carranza. It may be assumed that President Wilson will ratify the agreement if the report is true that he privately approved a preliminary draft of the provisions before they were sent to Carranza.

In one respect the situation thus remains as it has been for weeks. That is, the decision remains with Carranza. He may have our help in eliminating the man who has hampered him and clung to his back like an Old Man of the Sea since the rupture at the battle of Zacatecas, more than two years ago, or he may rebuff us again, and again risk the consequences.

The adoption of the protocol would probably mean the continuance of the joint Commission as a means of communication and co-operation between Carranza and the United States, but the instrument provides that failure to ratify it will mean the end of the Commission which framed it.

JACK LONDON

A characteristic and interesting portrait of Jack London, who died in California on November 22, will be found on another page of this issue.

London's personal history was interwoven with his writing. As he was fond of saying, he had to hustle for a living while he was only a boy. From the time when he left the ranch upon which he was working at the age of twelve to become an "oyster pirate" in San Francisco, on through his experiences before the mast in a seal-hunting vessel and among the ice of Behring Sea, through his work as a coal-shoveler and longshoreman, and again as a factory hand, Jack London was living the things which he afterwards talked about in his books. It is true that he had some schooling, but it was interspersed with work in a laundry and ended by an adventurous trip for gold in the Klondike. No wonder that his tales have vigor of the roughest kind and that they depict things which are brutal. Moving among hard-working, hard-swearing, and hard-drinking men, London, as he himself has told in a bit of autobiography, lived exactly as his fellows did.

The gift of writing was for him the gift of putting on paper the sensations he had felt and the life he had led. "Virile" is the word most often used of his stories. He affected scorn of literary grace and gentle sentiment, and yet there are passages in some of his books which show that he was not always rough and violent in feeling. His very first work was an article on "A Typhoon Off the Coast of Japan," and it took a newspaper prize. Oddly enough, we are told, his next successful literary venture was with the "Atlantic Monthly." Later on he was a newspaper correspondent in the Russo-Japanese War. Still later, Jack London and his wife sailed for the southern Pacific in a little boat only forty-two feet on the waterline; the story of the voyage of the Snark was told both by Mr. London and his wife—many readers think that the latter's account was the better of the two.

In one way and another, Jack London wrote an immense amount. Probably the majority of his admirers would rank "The Call of the Wild" and "White Fang" first in the list of his books. In one of these stories he certainly entered in a most extraordinary way into the nature and the character of the dog which was part wolf and returns to the wild life; and in the second, of the wolf who was part dog and under the taming of love becomes a most faithful guardian of the house. "The Sea Wolf" ought not to be omitted in any mention of Jack London's works; it is intensely powerful,

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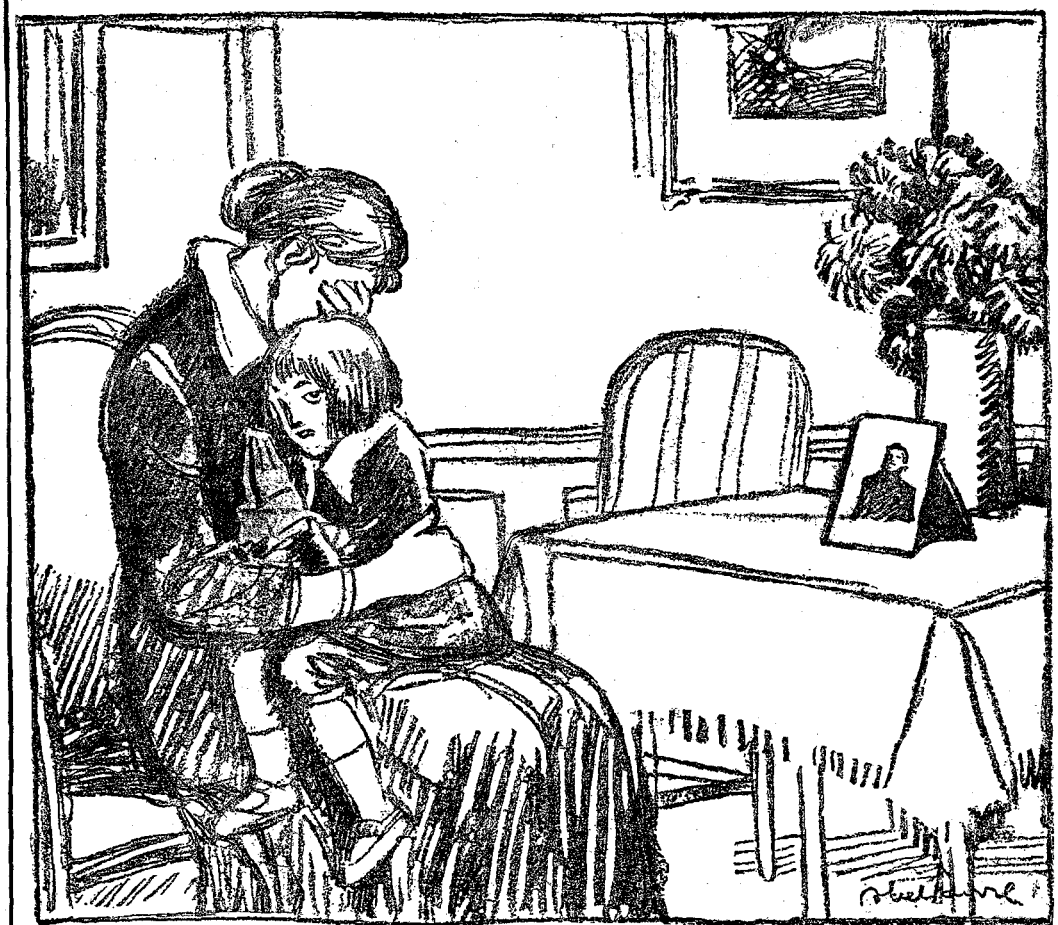
CARTOONS OF THE WEEK

Abel Faivre in the Echo de Paris



THE DAY OF THE DEAD

"Where must I pray for papa if he has no grave?"
"On my heart, dearest."

ALL SAINTS' DAY IN FRANCE

All Saints' Day, or, as the French call it, the Toussaint, in France is perhaps the most impressive holiday of the entire year there. In no other country is there such a general outpouring of the people of all sorts and conditions into the cemeteries to decorate the graves of those whom the day honors. The streets are thronged with people, mostly in mourning, carrying wreaths of immortelles, which seem to be the favorite French decoration for such an occasion. The churches, too, all hold special Toussaint services. In France war has made this day more than ever poignant; for many of the soldier dead have no graves

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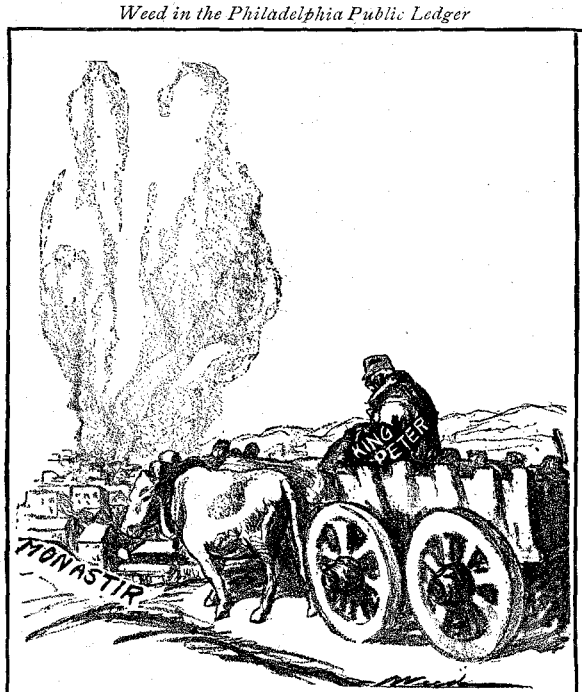
CARTOONS OF THE WEEK

Weed in the Philadelphia Public Ledger



BACK HOME

Pease in the Newark Evening News

BACK IN HIS OWN HOUSE

THE RETURN OF THE SERBIAN

Bell in the New York Evening Post

POOR SHELTER

THIS UMBRELLA IS OF LITTLE USE—

Kirby in the New York World

THE MAN WHO IS OUT IN THE WET

BUT THE SALARIED MAN HASN'T ANY!

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but greatly injured by excess of language and the depiction of brutality.

If environment and personal history are considered, Jack London's work is undeniably remarkable, and if he offended some tastes and failed to gain the approval of literary critics, he at least made himself one of the most popular story-tellers in recent American annals.

SIR HIRAM MAXIM

The death of Sir Hiram Maxim comes to remind us of the modernness of machine guns, which are playing so large a part in the European war.

Sir Hiram Maxim, despite his title, was not an Englishman by birth, but a native of the State of Maine. He was a descendant of one of the earliest families that settled in that State. He was born in 1840.

His most widely known achievement in the realm of applied science was the rapid-fire gun which bears his name. His first completed model, purchased by the British Government, fired two thousand shots in three minutes. The need of providing his new weapon with a smokeless powder then led him into the field of high explosives. His claim to be the true inventor of smokeless powder was recognized by the House of Lords.

Sir Hiram also experimented in the development of heavier-than-air flying-machines before the development of the first practical aeroplane by the Wrights. In 1894 he did succeed in creating a machine which raised itself from the ground. It was far, however, from being a practical success. During the last few months of his life Sir Hiram was working on a new type of aeroplane which was expected to reach a speed of 150 miles an hour on a moderate fuel consumption.

THE PROPOSED FOOD EMBARGO

The high cost of living, and the desire of some factions in our American life to attain that curious form of hyper-neutrality which is not even ordinary or common neutrality will doubtless bring before the next session of Congress in definite form the proposal to place an embargo on food products of the United States.

Unlike the embargo on arms which was primarily advocated in the name of neutrality, the new embargo promises to be supported in the name of the benefit that is to accrue to the citizens of the United States. So far as the international effect of such a proposed embargo is concerned, it would practically have the same effect as the defeated embargo on arms would have had. But the heaviest load of an embargo on food would not fall upon the soldiers at war but upon the non-combatants at home. It would practically result in the destruction of every effort which has been made to succor the Belgian nation.

And it is entirely possible, strange as it may seem, that the proposed embargo will be supported by the same group which has been loudest in attacking England's food blockade as an inhumane proceeding.

It seems to The Outlook that the proportion of added expense in our increased cost of living which comes from the shipment of food supplies abroad is a debt which can well be paid by the American people. If we properly reorganized our own domestic system of food distribution, we should be able, even with the present great drain upon our food resources, to bring the cost of food back to a reasonable basis.

INCOME TAX RETURNS

The returns from the income tax for 1916 make interesting reading.

During last year some $68,000,000 was collected from individuals, and some $57,000,000 from corporations.

On the list of those who paid income taxes there are more than 336,000 people, a percentage of approximately one-third of one per cent of the inhabitants of the United States. Of this one-third of a million people, 1,793 paid tax on net incomes of between $100,000 and $150,000, 724 on incomes of $150,000 to $200,000, 386 on incomes of between $200,000 and $250,000, and 120 on incomes of over $1,000,000. The number of those who paid taxes on the other classes under a million dollars was approximately what might be expected from the figures already given.

Of the one hundred and twenty people in the entire country who paid taxes on incomes of over a million, seventy-four live in New York State. Of course this does not necessarily mean that the productive wealth of the country has been so disproportionately distributed. It merely means that a large proportion of those with great fortunes gravitate to New York State and particularly to New York City for their final residence.

These figures are conclusive evidence of

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the small proportion of the people of the United States who are reached by the only direct tax of the Federal Government. The United States, among the nations of the world, stands in marked isolation in its method of distributing the burden of its direct income taxes.

THE FOOTBALL SEASON

If anything has been redetermined by the last season of football, it is the fact that the new game has come to stay. Since the reorganization of the game a few years ago it has grown steadily in popularity and public interest. No one wants to go back to the old game where brawn weighed so heavily in the balance against brain.

Under the new order of things each year has shown a striking advance in the records of what used to be called the minor elevens. The old-time practice game of the major colleges is almost a thing of the past. There are few colleges which in these troublous times can survive a season without the loss of a game.

One of the beneficial results of this condition is that it offers less opportunity to emphasize the championship features of the game. It is not a healthy condition in an amateur sport when a so-called championship is so highly valued that it is ranked above clean play and good sport. Much of the championship myth is the result of the false standpoint of sporting writers in the daily press. To follow their lead is to substitute the standpoint of the race-track and the professional baseball diamond for the healthy rivalry which belongs to true amateur sport.

To this spirit of healthy rivalry Yale's well-earned victory over Harvard by a score of 6 to 3 was a notable contribution. For seven years now no Yale team has defeated Harvard and for nine years no Yale player has crossed the Harvard goal line. Harvard men, with the memory of Yale's earlier series of victories in view, can be forgiven if they are disappointed at the break in their own chain of victories. But the re-establishment of Yale in a high place in the football world will add much to the interest of the Eastern football season.

It is particularly worthy of record that Yale's victory comes under the leadership of Coach T. A. D. Jones, a clean player and a good sportsman. For the sake of football, we are glad that Yale regained her stride under such a coach rather than under the tutelage of an old-school player like Hinkey, the coach of last year's eleven, which went down so decisively to defeat before the players from Harvard.

Yale not only defeated Harvard, but also her other great rival, Princeton, in a game which, as so many other of her games with Yale have been, proved to be a heartbreaking disappointment for the wearers of the orange and the black. Yale was defeated, like Harvard, by Brown University, one of the few colleges which has a chance of finishing the season with a clean slate. As we go to press Brown has still one game to play on Thanksgiving Day with Colgate, another college with a notable record of victories. Colgate's only defeat so far has been at the hands of Yale. The Colgate-Brown game and the Cornell-Pennsylvania game were, up to Thanksgiving Day, the only important games still to be played in the East.

Usually the Army and Navy finish their season after the other Eastern colleges, but this year the final game, which resulted in a victory for the Army, was played on the same day as the game between Yale and Harvard. The Army and the University of Pittsburgh, coached by Glenn Warner, the old leader of the Carlisle Indians, also went through the season without a defeat.

In the Middle West the final game for the Conference championship was played between Northwestern University and Ohio State. It resulted in a score of 23 to 3 in favor of Ohio State. Twenty of Ohio's points were made in the last quarter of play. Farther West, the Colorado Agricultural College is found with a notable record for the year. As we go to press the Colorado Agricultural College has one more game to play, on Thanksgiving Day, with the University of Colorado. The Colorado Agricultural College defeated the University of Utah by a score of 12 to 6.

On the Pacific coast the University of California went down to defeat before its chief rival, the University of Washington, in the first of their games of the season. Unlike the Eastern colleges, the University of California and the University of Washington play return games in the same year. The final game of the series between these two Western rivals is played on Thanksgiving Day. In the Far West the Pacific Coast Conference seems to have become firmly established. With this Conference in being, the whole Pacific Coast

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has become the unit of Far Western intercollegiate athletics.

THE AMERICAN AMBULANCE

The Hon. Myron T. Herrick, who rendered notable service as American Ambassador at Paris in the midst of the confusion of the early months of the war, lately made an address at Philadelphia which summarizes to date the work of the American Ambulance. There are now, reported Mr. Herrick, seven sections of ambulances working in the field in France. Each section is composed of twenty ambulances, one or two staff cars, and a few supply cars—about twenty-five cars in all. There is also a section in Paris which has grown to about thirty-five cars. It takes all the wounded coming into Paris from the trains to the various hospitals.

It is estimated that our ambulances have transported some two hundred and fifty thousand wounded men since the war began, and there are now nearly two hundred and fifty young Americans in the service as ambulance drivers, most of them college men. All told, since the beginning of the war we have probably had about five hundred young men in such service. More than a hundred have come from Harvard, about forty from Yale, and about the same number from Princeton. Some forty colleges are represented. Fifty-two of our men, said Mr. Herrick, have won the Croix de Guerre (the war cross) for bravery, and two have won the Médaille Militaire, the highest medal awarded by the French army, doubtless the only time civilians have won this medal.

At the beginning of the war the American Hospital, a small but complete institution, offered to install a war service, and the doctors and nurses pledged themselves to remain in the hospital and not to desert the wounded, no matter what should befall the capital. Not an American thought of deserting his post when the Germans came near to Paris.

From a scientific standpoint, so noteworthy was the service rendered that General Gallieni, then Governor-General of Paris, declared that out of the many hospitals in and about the city it was to the American Ambulance Hospital that special cases were sent for treatment. It became a hospital of the first line, and now has a number of out-patients at its own expense in other institutions. It cares for a total of about sixteen hundred wounded men daily.

The hospital is now in need of funds, having barely enough for three months longer. It costs $600 to endow a bed for a year. A word to the wise should be sufficient.

THE AMERICAN RELIEF CLEARING-HOUSE

Mr. Herrick also described an organization which he was too modest to say that he planned himself, namely, the American Relief Clearing-House. It now occupies the beautiful residence in which Ambassadors White, Bacon, and Mr. Herrick have lived, and has become the center of American relief work in France and other countries. It ministers to the homeless wanderers of any land who have been driven from their homes by the undiscriminating waste of war.

Such a strong central authority should surely be complemented and supplemented by a strong central authority here, such as the Government alone can give. "I wish that the President had seen fit, and it is not yet too late," the speaker observed, "to appoint a large number of the leading men of the country as a committee . . . to co-ordinate all kinds of relief work, receiving the aid of Federal and State Governments."

As to the extent of appropriations, "Were we to set the mark at a billion dollars," affirmed Mr. Herrick, "that would be little enough to meet the extraordinary demands of the worst calamity that the world has ever known."

He also added: "Were we to create this gigantic charity, to labor in every one of the belligerent countries for the relief of the wounded and destitute, its beneficent work would far overshadow all the animosities which now vex us."

One of the animosities arises out of the activities and non-activities of our neutrality. "There is an impression," Mr. Herrick noted, "that to be neutral means that we may profit from blood and tears of nations in agony, and that there is no obligation on us in return to do more than give a little from our surplus."

"But there is an active neutrality," he concluded, "which will cause Europe to think of us when this war is over, not as the commercial-minded sellers of munitions and supplies alone, but as the large-hearted, free-handed people who have cared for the wounded and dying, clothed and fed the homeless and hungry, and nursed the helpless victims of battle. These are the actions which will gain for us the love of Europe,

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rather than its contempt for our commercialism."

THE RECRUDESCENCE OF SAILS

"When my ship comes in," that good old phrase which was closely pertinent to American life in the days when American families invested their savings in tall, fast Yankee clippers, has been given fresh point by the war. American shipbuilding has enjoyed a tremendous boom since the Triple Entente and the Triple Alliance began capturing or destroying each other's sea cargoes. The shipbuilders of the United States made a new record for themselves when, during the second year of the war, they launched thirty-five big merchant steamers, twenty-one of them of more than five thousand tons. On July 1, 1916, in the United States there were 385 ships under construction or under contract.

Of course the greater part of the total tonnage is made up of steam vessels, but the sailing craft also has had its share in the boom. Before the war the American sailing ship was hull down on the business horizon and rapidly sinking from sight. But the breath of Mars, which has blown the trading craft of some nations entirely from the seas, has lifted along the sailing ships of Uncle Sam until they are looming bigger and bigger in their race for the world's trade.

It is these ships, the ships of wood and sails, rather than the vessels of steel and steam, which have lent a new meaning to the old phrase, "when my ship comes in." Steamships, even the "tramps," are usually the property of corporations which own several vessels, but the craft of sails is frequently the exclusive property of one or a few individuals who have put all their savings into her. A common plan is for the vessel's captain to own a half-interest in her, with the other half held by an inactive partner ashore. But "down East," that is, along the Maine coast, it is not a rare thing to find almost the entire savings of a small village invested in a tall schooner, and it is an eventful day indeed when she "comes in" from Rio or Cape Town or Archangel, with a golden harvest of war freights.

Ralph D. Paine writes entertainingly of this picturesque phase of our present shipping boom in "Scribner's Magazine" for November. He cites the case of the six-master E. B. Winslow, which went to Rio with 5,000 tons of coal and came home loaded to the Plimsoll marks with manganese ore. "Her owners received $180,000 in freight money, or considerably more than the cost of building her, and $120,000 of this was net profit to be distributed as dividends."

Then there was a retired skipper in Portland who bought an old ship two years ago for $17,000. "In two voyages this sturdy coaster put $35,000 into his pocket, after which he sold her for $100,000."

What "war brides" are to the financial world, shares or "pieces" in schooners have become to the shipbuilding centers of the Atlantic coast. An interesting fact reported by Mr. Paine is that the art of building a ship of wood is now mainly in the hands of old men. The decline of sail shipping, which was interrupted by the war, discouraged the entrance of the present generation into this healthy, noble, and time-honored trade.

Will the end of the war mark a resumption of the decline of the familiar "fore-and-after" and the less familiar but more stately "square-rigger"? We hope not. The disappearance of the wooden ship with sails would be a loss felt not only by her hardy Yankee owners, but as well by every one who loves the picturesque and romantic in contemporary life.

THE WHITE PINE BLISTER RUST

Our chestnut trees, as is well known, are being wiped out by the chestnut blight. And now the white pines of the United States and Canada, valued at some $350,000,000, are in similar danger. A conference, therefore, of State and National forestry experts has just been held at Albany to consider immediate action with regard to fighting the pine blister rust. Since The Outlook chronicled the appearance of this blight it has spread steadily. It is now found in all of the New England States, most of the Eastern and Northern States in the white pine belt, and in the Quebec and Ontario provinces of Canada. Between the Hudson and the Mississippi Rivers, however, the area represents only scattering infections. The area west of the Mississippi, so far as is known, is not yet infected, but it is in danger.

The only way to control the disease seems to be to eradicate in the neighborhood of white pines the currant and gooseberry bushes, both wild and cultivated, on which the blister rust propagates and spreads to the pines, and to institute strict quarantine laws. State legislation will be necessary to

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clean out infected areas, to quarantine the State, and, according to the recommendation of the forestry experts, to prevent the shipments of pine seedlings and of currant and gooseberry stock.

In view of all this, Mr. Charles Lathrop Pack, President of the American Forestry Association, is issuing a timely call to the Governors of all the States in the white pine belt and to the Government of Canada to send delegates to attend the annual meeting of the Association at Washington on January 18 and 19, 1917, to discuss plans for fighting the disease. Such a fight should, of course, be conducted in co-operation with the American Forestry Association, which has already begun a National campaign.

But the campaign needs the assistance of the Federal Government and of other States than those already affected. The campaign, as outlined by Mr. Pack, will aim to secure a Federal appropriation of about a quarter of a million dollars, if possible, to provide for investigation, scouting for the disease, and co-operation with the various States in efforts to suppress it. This campaign deserves quick recognition by Congress.

THE OLDEST CHURCH IN NEW YORK CITY AND ITS WORK

"Changing New York" is an expression frequently heard nowadays.

But one public building, the oldest in the city, St. Paul's Chapel, does not change. When it was built, its site, a wheat-field in an out-of-the-way spot, was ridiculed. The structure, accommodating a tenth of the population of New York City, was declared to be "a sinful waste of money, as the town would never extend its limits far enough to insure a large and steady attendance." At the first service the Governor, Sir Henry Moore, was present, and introduced his band of music. The most prominent people of the city, in their quaint eighteenth-century costumes, sat in the prim, oblong pews, with their servants thronging the galleries. In 1776, when Washington was in command of the American army in New York, the rector, a stanch Royalist, closed the church when forbidden to read the prayers for the King. In 1789 the President and both houses of Congress went in procession from the inauguration in Wall Street to St. Paul's for a thanksgiving service. As long as he lived in New York City Washington attended church here, writing in his diary as regularly as Sunday came round, "Went to St. Paul's chapel in the forenoon." His square pew, marked by an old wall painting of the arms of the United States, is still shown. The altar-piece is also linked with history; it is a monument to General Richard Montgomery, who lost his life in the attack on Quebec at the beginning of the Revolution. Years later Canada returned his body and it was interred here. This monument was designed by L'Enfant, the French city planner of Washington.

Gradually New York changed. People moved uptown and business moved in, changing the homes of prominent citizens into lofts and offices and tenements. And St. Paul's community to-day represents business men, clerks and stenographers, charwomen, all sorts and conditions of folk, of many races and creeds. The work of St. Paul's is changed too. It is planned directly for these busy people. The church activities, filled with the zeal and fire of Paul, are endowed with his missionary spirit. At noon the churchyard, with its curious old tombstones, is a lunch-room, a reading-room, a rest-room, for the many young women employed in the high buildings that look down on St. Paul's colonial tower. This hospitality is not abused, for both church and yard have an atmosphere impressing every visitor. The possible danger of no congregation, feared a hundred and fifty years ago, will never be realized as long as St. Paul's, unchanged, ministers to its changing neighbors.

HELPING THE PUBLIC TO POLICE ITSELF

Under the Commissionership of Arthur Woods the Police Department of New York City has distinctly taken the leadership among the police departments of the country in the application of science to the solution of police problems. The administration of Commissioner Woods has been especially active in the development of the preventive side of police work. Some people think of the function of the policeman as solely that of catching criminals. But just as a doctor who prevents disease is more valuable to society than one who only cures it, so a police official who prevents crime is more valuable than one who only catches criminals.

The New York police authorities have been particularly foresighted in teaching the public to protect itself. As the latest move in a campaign to reduce disease, street accidents,

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and the activities of pickpockets and burglars, the Police Department has obtained the co-operation of the Advertising Club of New York in arousing the public by publicity methods.

About fifty thousand posters, three hundred thousand booklets, and one thousand picture slides have been distributed throughout the city. Storekeepers have been asked to display these posters in their windows, and the proprietors of moving-picture houses flash on the screen the warnings of the police against pickpockets between reels of the latest film sensations.

To reduce the present high average of street accidents in New York City, which results in the death of one person every fourteen hours and the injury of one person every twenty-three minutes, the Police Commissioner has issued the following sensible and sententious warnings, among others:

To pedestrians:

Don't run across streets through heavy traffic. The busiest man I know wastes at least thirty minutes a day; why risk your life to save five seconds crossing the street?

2. Never attempt to cross a street with a bundle or umbrella over your head or reading a newspaper. Either hides oncoming vehicles from your view.

3. Stand still if you get caught in a traffic jam. It may save your life.

To drivers:

1. Your responsibility does not end with the honking of the horn when others are in your path.

2. Your automobile may be under control, but how about the other fellow's? He may be a crazy man. You don't know.

Here are some precautions against burglars and pickpockets:

1. When you leave your house, don't advertise the fact by pulling down the shades or by leaving a note in the letter-box saying that you will be back at such and such a time. Sneak thieves profit by such advice. It is an invitation for them to enter.

2. Don't be too eager to pull out your watch and give the time of day to everybody who asks you for it. That's a good opportunity for somebody to grab it and run.

3. Don't carry your handbag suspended by a strap from your wrist. Hold it tightly in your hand. This prevents thieves from opening the bag or pocketbook and extracting your money or valuables from it.

Miscellaneous advice:

1. Respect your neighbor as much as yourself. Don't beat your rugs or stir up ashes so that your dirt will be blown into his apartment to fall on his food or be breathed by him.

2. Buy by standard weight or measure, not by basket or prepared package.

3. When you see a crime committed, or observe a suspicious person or condition, notify the police at once. The more you co-operate with the police, the more the police can accomplish for you.

3. Regard the policeman as your best friend. *You* are paying him to keep your street safe and orderly. He is entitled to your help.

Doubtless even in this short list there are some subjects which the policemen of some cities feel are not within their province at all. But the New York policeman is learning to feel that nothing which protects society is out of his field. And the New York public is learning that the policeman is a friend, and is learning that as much depends on the public in the enforcement of law as on the policeman.

PROGRESSIVISM AND NATIONALISM

If the letters The Outlook is receiving from its readers are trustworthy evidence, there is still a widespread and keen interest in the meaning of the recent Presidential election.

It is plain from these letters that this continued interest is not due to any tendency to look back. On the contrary, with scarcely an exception, our readers who have favored us with their opinions on this subject are looking forward. In this they are characteristically American. They have in mind the future of the country. They write with a desire to apply the lessons of the election in the coming years.

Some of these letters we shall print in an early issue—probably next week. Here, in the same spirit in which our readers have written to us, we shall consider one phase of the election as it bears upon American progress.

During the campaign the voters of the country apparently felt themselves confronted with the choice between what may be called Nationalism and Progressivism.

Every nation has duties that are represented by these two words. One is the duty of fulfilling its obligation as a member of the family of nations, as an upholder of the rights of its citizens wherever they may be, the duty of preserving its own self-respect

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and preserving the respect of other nations in its dealings with them, the duty of maintaining the fabric of international law, of promoting justice between nation and nation, of withstanding those acts of injustice which concern it directly or indirectly, and preserving from outside attack its own cherished institutions on which its life is based. Nationalism may be said to constitute those policies which are designed to fulfill this duty. On the other hand, there is the duty of the nation to adapt its laws to the growing life of its own people, to make readier and more accessible the instruments of justice, to provide a fairer apportionment of the rewards of labor, to prevent the exploitation of the weak, to utilize for the public good the resources of the country, to direct to right ends the strength of the strong, to make the tools of industry serve people rather than things, to develop not merely the material but also the moral wealth of its people. Those policies which are designed to enable the nation to fulfill this duty we have come to group in this country under the general title Progressivism.

It is very rare to find in any party or in any conspicuous leader of any country an appreciation of both these duties. Most parties in every country emphasize the one at the expense of the other. What has been called a strong foreign policy (and that does not always mean an aggressive foreign policy) has usually been a characteristic of the party regarded as conservative, while the liberal party in almost every country concentrates its attention on domestic problems of development to the neglect of the nation's duties in its relation to other nations.

Conspicuous examples of this occur readily to the mind. Gladstone, the great Liberal leader, for instance, failed when it was England's duty to protect Gordon; and against Gladstone's services for Home Rule is to be placed his record in South Africa. The few men who combine Nationalism and Progressivism have had few imitators. Italy produced such a man in Cavour. In our day we find Greece producing such a man in Venizelos, and England in Viscount Grey. It is perhaps the chief distinction of Theodore Roosevelt as a political leader that he has identified his name with both a nationalistic movement that made the United States respected throughout the world, and a progressive movement so powerful as to produce a party that rose in a brief space of time to a position of the second place in the Nation. One may disagree politically with such leaders as these, but it cannot be well denied that they are exceptions in a world which seems to regard Nationalism and Progressivism as ordinarily mutually incompatible.

All the finest traditions of America are on the side of Nationalism. Pride and self-sacrifice combined to produce in the American colonies a group of National leaders such as we believe no other nation has produced. When the Algerian pirates cowed the Powers of Europe, it was the Nationalist spirit of America that reinforced the public law of nations. Nationalism was put to the test of the sword in 1861, and emerged stronger than ever. Made up of many peoples, drawing on the traditions of many lands, busy with the task of conquering first a wilderness and then a frontier, the American people have never yet wrought out a completed Nation; but they have never lacked the National spirit.

During the past twelve years there has been developing in this country a progressive movement of vast proportions. It is so recent in its growth as not to require description in detail. It has pervaded all parties. Circumstances gave it definite organized form in the Republican party. Leaders, or rather party managers, who happened to be in power, resisted it in that party, and as a consequence a new party was born, which demonstrated by the obvious process of vote-getting the irresistible character of that movement. With the accession to power of the Democratic party under the leadership of Woodrow Wilson, that progressive movement was by no means moderated. Rather, it was diverted to a new channel. President Wilson's political sagacity enabled him to make use of this great progressive movement for the strengthening of his own party. He has been responsive to the temper of the American people and has forced his party to be also.

If it had not been for the blindness of a comparatively small group of Republican managers, the progressive movement which originated in the Republican party might have become identified with the party of Nationalism; but, because of their blindness, the progressive sentiment of the country was alienated.

Then arose a European war, and there were thrust upon this country opportunities for the performance of international duties

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unexampled in history. If Democratic leadership had been as sagacious in understanding these opportunities as it had been in understanding the drift toward Progressivism, the triumph of the Democratic party would have been overwhelming. But it was not. If the Republican party had made clear and plain that it had learned its lesson, that it was vigorously and unqualifiedly progressive as well as Nationalistic, the Republican party would have been overwhelmingly triumphant. But as Democratic leadership had failed to understand its duty toward Nationalism, so Republican leadership failed to recognize its opportunity toward the duty of Progressivism.

So it happened that in the Presidential campaign Nationalism seemed to be arrayed against Progressivism.

The country has been both Nationalistic and Progressive, and, we believe, is both Nationalistic and Progressive to-day.

In the East the voters, more familiar with Mr. Hughes's record than their fellow-countrymen of the West, regarded him as essentially a progressive, and therefore regarded the issue as presenting to them a choice between Progressivism with Nationalism and Progressivism without Nationalism; and they chose the former.

The people in the West, less concerned with the new questions of Nationalism that had been presented by the war, though responsive to every appeal to Nationalism when put plainly to them, were by no means convinced that the Republican party under Mr. Hughes's leadership was soundly progressive. And to them the choice presented itself as being between a Nationalistic Republican party with a very questionable progressive record, and a progressive Democratic party with a very questionable record on Nationalism. To them it was a question whether the Nationalistic traditions of the country were in greater danger than the progressive achievements of the last four years, and they made up their minds that the Democratic party was not as likely to endanger American Nationalism as the Republican party was to endanger the progressive movement.

With the aid of the South, which under all circumstances is Democratic apart from any question of Nationalism or Progressivism or anything else, the West decided the issue.

The lesson is plain.

To the Democratic party it is a lesson to heed the Nationalist traditions of America. So far as the country votes as it thinks, the country was overwhelmingly Nationalist in this past election. No party that uniformly and continually sacrifices National traditions can long survive.

To the Republican party the lesson is even more impressive. Reactionary politics, even those attached to Nationalist sentiment, cannot control the American people. The only chance there is for the continuance of the existence of the Republican party lies in the ability of that party to create for itself leaders who are to the core progressive.

THE MEANING OF THE REFORMATION

The celebration by Protestants of the four hundredth anniversary of the Lutheran Reformation furnishes an appropriate occasion for restating the significance of that great world movement.

The words "Protestant" and "Reformation" do not adequately represent the great religious movement which in the sixteenth century revolutionized one-half of Christendom. That movement was more than a protest against certain beliefs and practices of the Roman Catholic Church; it was more than a reformation of the beliefs, ritual, and ecclesiastical organization of that Church; it was a great awakening of man to his personal responsibility to God.

There are two views of man's relation to God, which may be briefly, if somewhat crudely, stated thus: One view regards the Church as the representative of God upon the earth; from this Church man is to receive the divine commandments; to this Church man is responsible for his beliefs and his conduct. If he accepts the teachings of the Church and obeys the commands of the Church, the responsibility for his beliefs and his conduct is shifted from him to the Church. So, in the battlefields of France, the British Empire is represented by the generals in command. From these generals the private soldiers receive their orders; to these generals they are responsible, and their whole responsibility is fulfilled by this obedience. The generals are in turn responsible to the superior authority at Westminster.

The other view regards God as personally present in the world, not only with and in his Church, but with all his children, speaking to them in their consciences, their aspira-

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tions, and their spiritual hopes. From this ever-present God every man receives his orders; to this ever-present God man is responsible for his beliefs and his actions; to his fellow-men he is responsible only as his conduct directly affects their interests and their rights. The Church is valuable because it helps the individual to interpret aright this voice of God in the soul of man; but it is not a substitute for that voice.

Not all members of either the Roman Catholic or the Protestant communion hold its fundamental faith with entire consistency. But whenever a Roman Catholic recognizes the authority of his conscience as superior to the authority of the Church on any ethical or spiritual subject, there is in that recognition the germ of a possible Protestant; and whenever a Protestant sets aside his own conscience or his own reason in obedience to the dictates of the church to which he belongs, there is in that self-abnegation the relic of a past Romanism.

The consciousness of individual responsibility to God is the basis of democracy. No people can long retain at the same time and in the same community submission to ecclesiastical authority and independence of political authority. No people can long maintain at the same time and in the same community that the authority of the priests comes from God through the Church and the authority of the State comes from God through the people. The doctrine that the priests are sovereign and the people are subjects and the doctrine that the people are sovereign and the rulers are subjects cannot permanently abide together in the same mind. The foundation for democracy is the faith that God dwells with men and that to God all men are directly responsible. The religious reformation preceded and prepared for the democratic uprising. The democratic uprising would have been impossible but for the religious reformation.

The peril to democracy in our time lies not in a possible restoration of autocracy either in Church or State. There is little danger that the victories won for the people by William of Orange, and Cromwell, and Washington and his compatriots will be lost and a Philip II, a Charles I, or a George III will be enthroned on American soil. Nor is there any danger that the victories won by Wycliffe, Huss, and Luther will be lost and Leo X will establish a Vatican for America. The danger lies in quite the opposite direction. All righteous laws come from God, but from the God interpreted to us by our reason and our conscience. We have not to go back to the first chapter of Genesis to learn how the world was made. God has written the record of creation in what Hugh Miller well called "The Testimony of the Rocks;" and we are to search for the truth of nature in nature herself. We have not to go back to the Ten Commandments for the laws of righteous conduct. Those Commandments are an admirable summary of divine law, but they are copies. The original is written in the hearts and consciences of men, and in the hearts and consciences of men we are to look both for the law and for its just application to the conditions of our modern life. The lesson of the Reformation was not a merely negative lesson; its teaching is not exhausted in the declaration that neither the authority of priests nor of kings is final. Its teaching was affirmative: the truth that the final authority is the voice of God, speaking to man and in man.

If government of the people, by the people, and for the people perishes from the earth, it will be because we have substituted self-will for the divine will, the infallibility of majorities for the infallibility of the Church, private interests for the public welfare, and the notion that might makes right for the eternal truth that right makes might.

"Despotism may govern without faith," says de Tocqueville, "but liberty cannot. Religion is much more necessary in the Republic which they [the atheistic Republicans] set forth in glowing colors than in the monarchy which they attack; it is more needed in democratic republics than in any others. How is it possible that societies should escape destruction if the moral tie be not strengthened in proportion as the political tie is relaxed? And what can be done with a people who are their own masters if they be not submissive to the deity?"

This is the political lesson of the Reformation which America needs to learn, which on this anniversary journalists should reaffirm, statesmen should heed, ministers should urge, and all Americans should ponder. The Protestant who shares in the fundamental faith of the Reformers, and believes with de Tocqueville that the greatest peril to the Republic comes from confusing uncontrolled self-will with liberty, will co-operate with the Roman Catholic in maintaining the responsibility of every soul to God, although the Roman Catholic thinks that responsi-

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bility is mediate through the Church and the priesthood, and the Protestant believes that it is immediate, direct, and personal to the God in his own soul.

THE PASSING OF JEFFERSON BRICK

Emerson thought it odd that Americans should have, "not water on the brain, but a little gas there," and he quotes the remark of a foreigner that "whatever they say has a little the air of a speech." The "tall talk," which has offended foreigners since the day when Dickens found Mr. Jefferson Brick a fountain of unconscious humor, long ago ceased either to impress or to amuse the mature American of to-day. Self-disparagement is a characteristic English habit which seems very like the reverse of the American habit of boasting, but it is not so much depreciation as a quiet assurance based on the consciousness of having played a great part in the world; a part so great as to make individual self-assertion not only unnecessary, but in very bad taste. It has been said that Cambridge University men act as if they owned the earth, while Oxford men act as if they had owned it so long that they had forgotten it.

The people of the Old World "arrived" so long ago that they have ceased to celebrate the date. People at the top of the social order in England are, as a rule, free from social self-consciousness. A successful broker or tea merchant who has just been knighted is likely to be sensitive about the "Sir" which prefixes his name; but the duke whose title was familiar to the playgoers in Shakespeare's time is several centuries too old to be concerned about his position; and this is not inconsistent with the remark of a guide who was showing a visitor through the house of a great noble. He opened the door into a room in which an elderly man was breakfasting. The visitor drew back. "It's nobody but the Duke," said the guide. From the guide's point of view the great nobleman was as secure in ancient dignity and historic interest as the stately house itself; his rank was a part of the ancient order of the realm.

In France one does not have to visit the Midi or read the delightful adventures of Tartarin to find the Latin note of expansiveness; he has only to note the exuberant names of many of the hotels in Baedeker. Many a quiet and delightful inn does not hesitate to appropriate to itself the august name of the Universe, sometimes adding, with a little lack of humor, the name of the province in which it is situated. This may be a device to make the visitor feel a little more at home; the word "Universe" has great impressiveness, but it does not suggest the coziness of the inn in which one takes his ease. As for the learned but obtuse Germans, the assertion of their colossal claims to the foremost position in the divine plan of the order of the world makes one wish that Heine were here to make merry again over certain peculiarities of the Fatherland.

It will be one of the functions of the Far East in the future to teach the West manners; but behind the courtesy of India and China there survives a superb composure born of thousands of years of experience of life and leadership in the world. The Oriental cannot forget that in dealing with the West he is dealing with the raw inexperience of extreme youth, and in his heart there is a certain proud disdain of the satisfaction of the West in its immense buildings, its wonderful mechanisms, its numberless devices for physical convenience and comfort. "The time has come to present India to the world," says an Indian writer in a recent interpretation of India—the contemned of the world but the beloved of the gods—"to the nations of the West struggling in the grip of their own matter-mad civilization." A few years ago a distinguished Japanese diplomatist who happened to be in Rome was the guest of half a dozen Englishmen at breakfast. It was a pleasantly informal occasion, but it gradually, and perhaps insensibly, took the form of an advisory council on Japanese affairs, and many suggestions were made by the hosts to the guest. The latter listened with Oriental courtesy until at the end he said, in a deferential tone: "Will you pardon me if I remind you that the present dynasty was reigning in Japan when Romulus and Remus built their mud walls around the little village of Rome?"

The sense of superiority seems to be widely diffused, but age gives it a certain mellowness. Mr. Jefferson Brick is still active in many "lines" of business, but his vocabulary has faded and he has outgrown much of his immature exuberance.

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Current Events Pictorially Treated

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THE NEW EMPEROR OF AUSTRIA AND HIS FAMILY

The Archduke Charles Francis, who became Emperor Charles VII on the death of Francis Joseph November 21, was born in 1887; in 1911 he married Princess Zita of Parma. They have three children, two of whom appear in the picture; the boy, standing, is the heir apparent

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THE DUKE OF DEVONSHIRE

PHOTOGRAPH FROM UNDERWOOD & UNDERWOOD

THE DUCHESS OF DEVONSHIRE

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THE DAUGHTERS

From left to right: the Ladies Rachel, Dorothy, Anne, and Blanche Cavendish

THE NEW GOVERNOR-GENERAL OF CANADA AND HIS FAMILY

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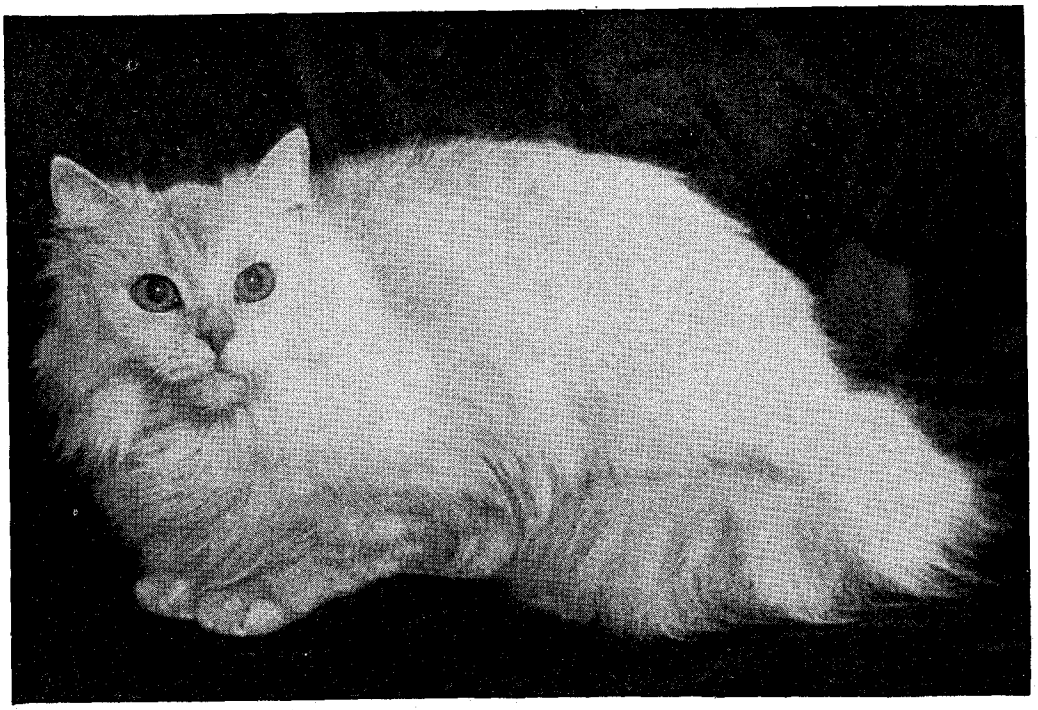

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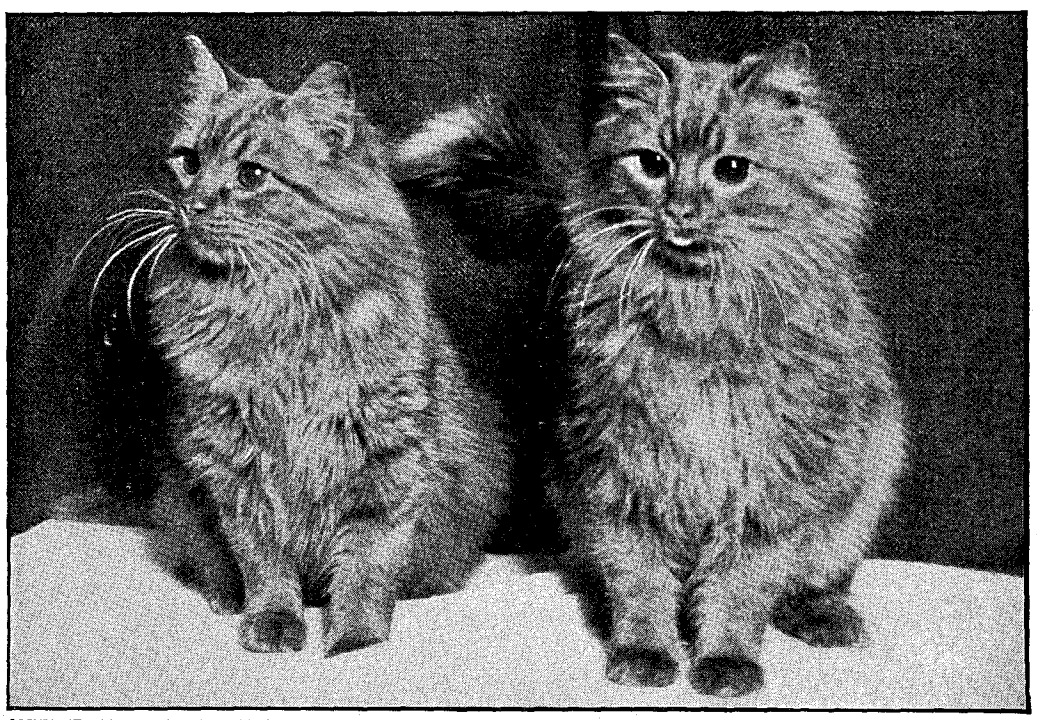
GLORIA VICTOR, A SILVER CHINCHILLA



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INDIAN PRINCESS AND JOLLY JEANNETTE, TWO RED KITTENS THAT ATTRACTED MUCH ADMIRATION

PRIZE WINNERS IN THE CAT SHOW AT NEW YORK

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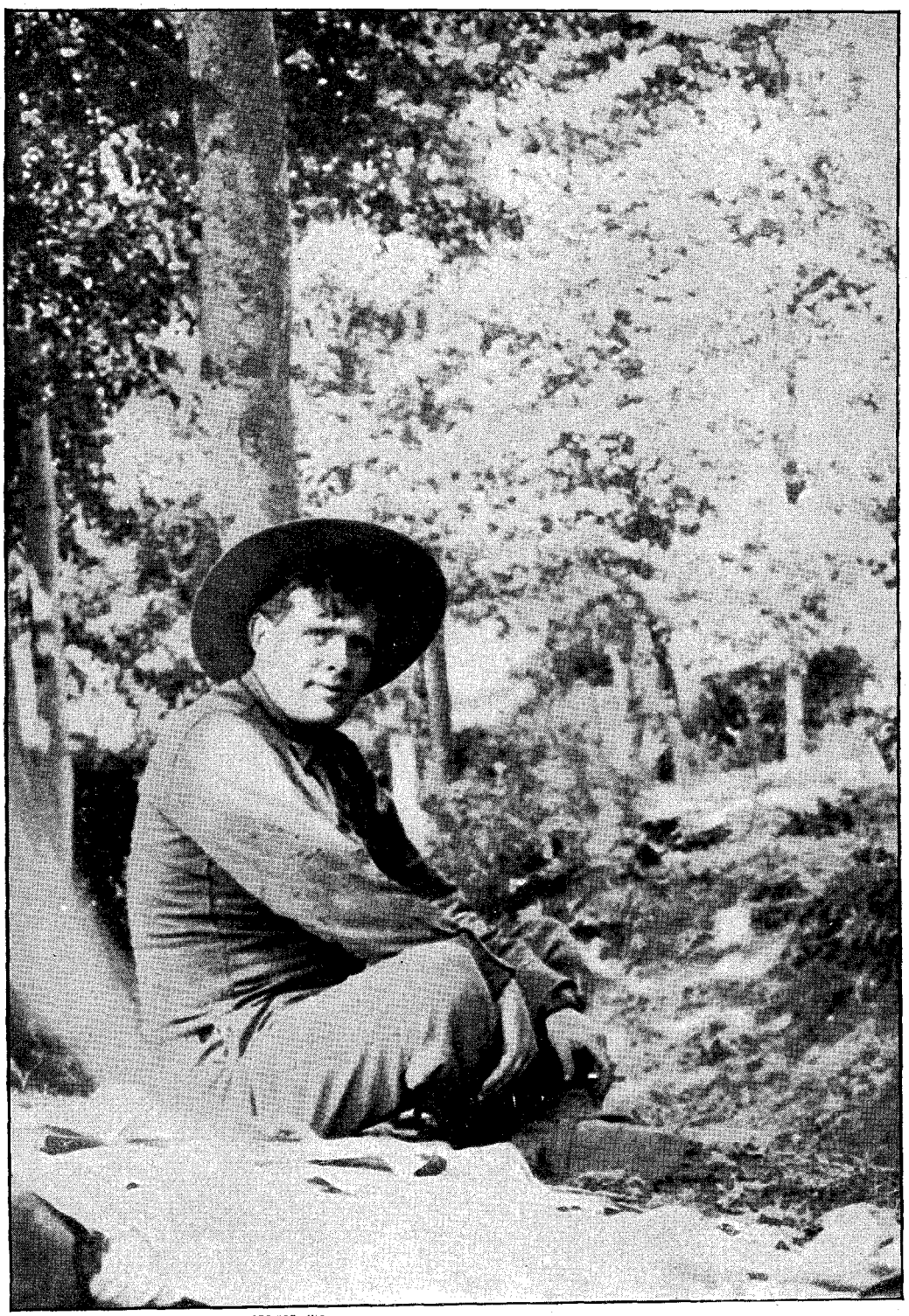

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JACK LONDON: SAILOR, ADVENTURER, WAR CORRESPONDENT, AUTHOR

Jack London died in California November 22. He was a voluminous author, "The Call of the Wild" being probably his most popular book. See editorial comment

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THE BIG HARVARD "H" ON THE HARVARD SIDE OF THE FIELD

This huge letter was formed by the Harvard undergraduates, massed in the seats opposite the middle of the field. At a signal they waved flags making a white "H" against a crimson background

PHOTOGRAPH BY PAUL THOMPSON

YALE'S FIRST TOUCHDOWN AGAINST HARVARD IN NINE YEARS

THE YALE-HARVARD FOOTBALL GAME AT NEW HAVEN, NOVEMBER 25

Yale's triumph in this game was her first victory over Harvard for nine years, and it aroused unbounded enthusiasm among the vast crowd of almost 80,000 persons who packed the Yale Bowl. See editorial comment

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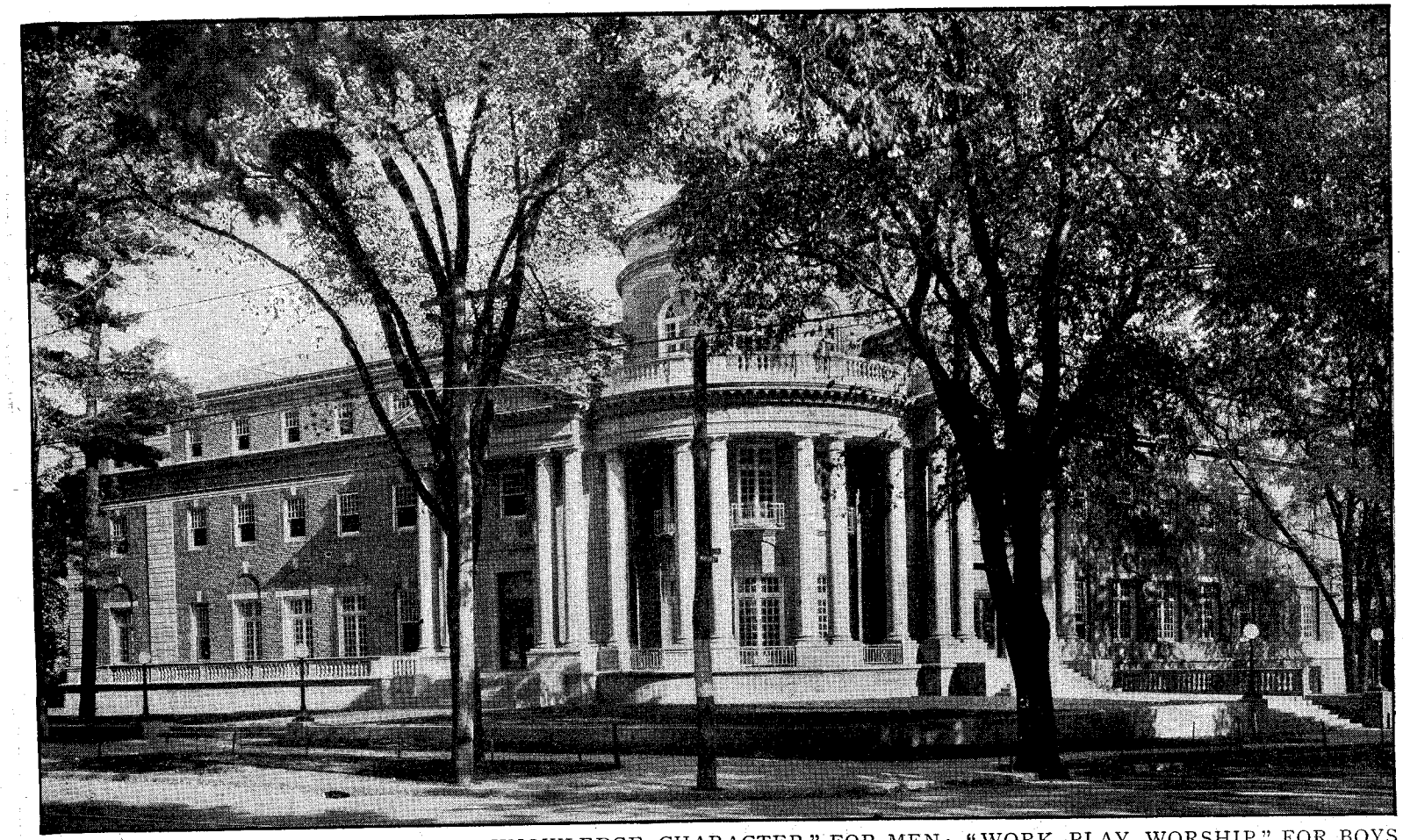

A BUILDING DEVOTED TO "HEALTH, KNOWLEDGE, CHARACTER" FOR MEN; "WORK, PLAY, WORSHIP" FOR BOYS

The small towns of this country need buildings like the one pictured above, for the training and inspiration of men and boys in their leisure hours. The man who gives to the community such a building is surely a public benefactor. The picture shows the new home of the Young Men's Christian Asssociation in Greenwich, Connecticut. It was presented, completely furnished, in memory of Nathaniel Witherell, "a manly man, a good citizen, a Christian gentleman." The ideals of the work to be conducted in this building are well expressed in the inscriptions over the doorways, "To Make Men Strong, in Body, in Mind, in Spirit;" "To Help Boys Grow in True Manliness." Messrs. M. L. and H. G. Emery, of New York City, are the architects

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"CHRISTMAS IS COMING!"

The boys are anticipating Christmas joys by having a little fun with a big toy horse made in Winchendon, Massachusetts. This place is sometimes called the Toy Town of the United States, on account of its large output of children's toys

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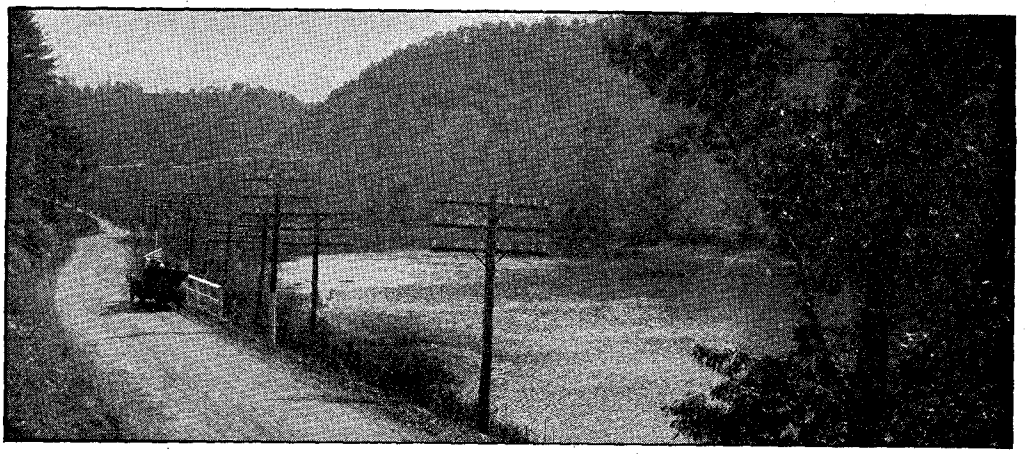
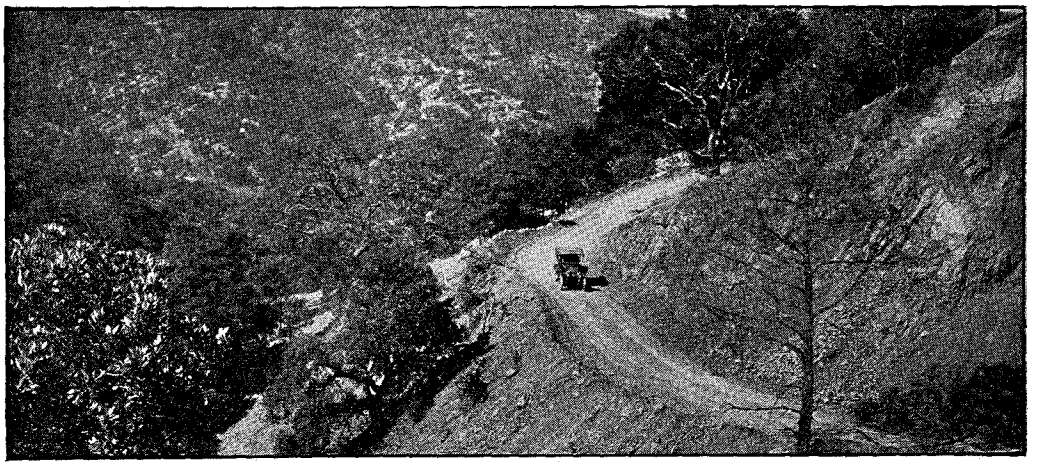


ON THE BANKS OF THE JUNIATA RIVER, IN PENNSYLVANIA

IN THE "COW COUNTRY" OF WYOMING



IN SCHELLBOURNE PASS, NEAR ELY, NEVADA

ON THE LINCOLN HIGHWAY IN THE EAST, THE PLAINS, AND THE SIERRAS

The Lincoln Highway, in the words of the Lincoln Highway Association, which has its headquarters at Detroit, Michigan, aims at "a continuous connecting improved highway from the Atlantic to the Pacific." The idea is to use, as far as possible, the best roads at present available, to equip them with guide-posts giving reliable information to travelers, and to urge local improvement of existing highways so as eventually to have a fine transcontinental thoroughfare

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AN EXPLORER WHO FEARED TO CROSS BROADWAY

TO-DAY it is hardly remembered that Robert Louis Stevenson was an engineer, or that Ulysses S. Grant was a storekeeper. Of the many who know the fame of Vilhjalmur Stefansson as an Arctic explorer, how many know that once his ambition was to be a poet?

We did not know it ourselves until recently there came to a member of the staff of The Outlook a letter from Stefansson which was written "near Armstrong Point, Victoria Island, October 9, 1915." Victoria Island is far above the Arctic Circle in the frozen Arctic Ocean. What a story might be made of the vicissitudes which that envelope has passed through in its twelve months' trip, part way perhaps by dog-sled and trading schooner, from Victoria Island to New York City!

Mr. Stefansson did not intend his letter for publication, but parts of it throw such an interesting light on the personality of a man whose scientific reputation has been established and who has become a public figure that we cannot withstand the temptation to share them with our readers. Moreover, Mr. Stefansson cannot possibly hold us to account until he emerges from the ice-bound North in 1918, and that seems a long way ahead.

This letter was received a few days after the New York "Times" made public the first report which has been sent to the world from the Stefansson Expedition for more than a year. The last direct message received from the explorer was dated August 22, 1915, when he announced the discovery of a new land at 78° north latitude and 116° west longitude. In this latest communication Mr. Stefansson reports again the discovery of that land and outlines his plans for exploring it farther.

In his letter from Victoria Island, which is where he discovered the so-called "White Eskimos" in 1910, Stefansson makes the interesting revelation of his early literary ambitions in referring to a volume of the letters of the late William Vaughn Moody, the poet and dramatist, who is best known to the public as the author of "The Great Divide."

"Moody did me a great service," writes Stefansson; "his 'Gloucester Moors' and 'We Stood in Shelter from the Storm' showed me that when such was the standard of poetry my work could never rise above verse. But for that I might now be writing second-class verse in time unfairly taken from some work at which I could be useful."

The explorer's letter was written to a man to whom Stefansson offered a position in the Canadian Arctic Expedition, which he is now leading, just before Stefansson left civilization in 1913. At that time, when asked what chance there was of the volunteer being able to return to the United States at the end of a year in the Arctic, Stefansson said, after deliberate thought:

"You have about two chances out of five of getting back in a year, two chances out of five of getting back in not less than four years, and there is one chance in five that you will never come back."

In discussing in his recent letter the wisdom of the decision of his correspondent not to go to the Arctic after this analysis of the chances of a quick return, Stefansson writes:

"I have more than once on this expedition needed the kind of man I suppose you to be, but it is almost certainly for your best that you did not go. You have more to show for your time where you are. What I shall have to show for that time is as yet uncertain. Tragedy has already fallen to us, though I have never come in close touch with it myself—those who are dead were lost where I was not. The true facts of those tragedies will probably never be publicly known, nor would explanations and facts bring back those who are dead.

"As for the work on which I am personally engaged, it is conducted cautiously, and there is only such danger as you face in your work. Should we be lost, it will be an accident comparable with your railway accidents and theater fires."

The last paragraph is in the same strain as an oral remark which Stefansson once made to the same person to whom this letter was written. Stefansson and his acquaintance were about to cross Broadway at Forty-fourth Street, in New York City, on their way to the Harvard Club. The explorer poised on the curb for fully three or four minutes, looking anxiously up and down the avenue before daring to plunge across, and

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then his gait was the quick, nervous shuffle of a man crossing the tender ice of a newly frozen "lead."

"It is strange that a hardy explorer of your courage should be so timid about crossing a city street," Stefansson's companion remarked to him.

"Not at all," replied the discoverer of the "white Eskimo." "The streets of New York are more dangerous than the frozen level plains of the Arctic Ocean. In the north, ice can be measured, meteorological conditions studied, and the extent and the imminence of most dangers can generally be determined pretty accurately. But on these streets danger is at every hand and cannot be foreseen. While avoiding a taxicab you step into a subway excavation, and in side-stepping a motor truck you walk under a falling piano."

Vilhjalmur Stefansson is an American citizen although he was born in Canada of Icelandic parents. He studied at the University of North Dakota and the University of Iowa. Later, while taking graduate courses at Harvard, he acted as an assistant in anthropology. After leaving Harvard he took a body of Harvard men on a scientific tour of Iceland. In 1906 and 1907 he traveled down the Mackenzie River and made an important study of the Eskimos of that region. Stefansson first became known to the general public by his discovery of the blond Eskimos of Victoria Island, which was made in 1910. This discovery has been considered of great importance by scientists of all nations, as it indicates that some of the ancestors of the Victoria Islanders were Europeans.

The most remarkable characteristic of Stefansson as an Arctic explorer is one which marks him as different from almost all other members of his austere profession. This is that, instead of carrying with him vast supplies of food, clothing, and equipment, Stefansson mainly "lives as he goes." It is a great asset to him in his work that he can live like the natives of the barren lands in which he travels. Once for several days he lived on seal oil soaked up in tea leaves, in ptarmigan feathers, or in caribou hair to give it substance. Speaking of the preparations for his first trip to Victoria Island, he says, "We considered that carrying food to the Arctic was carrying coal to Newcastle."

LABOR LEADERS IN A FORWARD-LOOKING CONVENTION

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE BY CHARLES STELZLE

WHILE the four hundred delegates attending the thirty-sixth annual Convention of the American Federation of Labor, just held in Baltimore, represent only two million workers, it is probably true that they voice the hopes and aspirations of many millions who for various reasons are unorganized. And the Federation is going forward in point of membership at a much greater ratio than the increase in population, for whereas the population of this country during the past twenty years probably increased forty-two per cent, membership in the Federation during the same period increased about seven hundred per cent. The past year was the record year in the Federation's history for increased membership.

The most significant event in the Convention proceedings occurred when the presidents of the four big railway brotherhoods involved in the eight-hour day controversy addressed the delegates. Never before had these brotherhoods been represented at a convention of the American Federation of Labor. The brotherhoods are not affiliated with the Federation. By many they have been regarded as the "aristocrats" of the labor movement. While the brotherhood presidents' visit to the Federation was entirely unofficial, the tenor of their remarks seemed to indicate that they favored affiliation with the Federation.

Among the reasons why the railway brotherhoods have held aloof from the Federation was the fear of jurisdictional controversy regarding the supervision by the brotherhoods of certain grades of workers, and the dread on the part of some of the trainmen that the Federation might "compel them to sleep with niggers," as one of the brotherhood

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presidents put it. The Federation requires that its members shall "never discriminate against a fellow-worker on account of creed, color, or nationality." At any rate, the time seems to have arrived when the brotherhoods and the Federation will fight together, even though they are not officially related.

It became increasingly evident at this Convention that the Federation will depend more and more upon trade-union tactics to secure its ends, rather than upon State legislation or ordinary "legal" methods, although the growth of Socialism and Socialistic sentiment in the Federation will have to be reckoned with by the leaders—the Socialists naturally seeking to obtain desired reforms through the State.

At the two previous conventions of the Federation decided opposition to the securing of the shorter work-day through legislation was manifested. It seemed highly inconsistent that during the recent discussion regarding the eight-hour work-day on the railways the Federation officials appeared to indorse President Wilson's programme to secure the shorter work-day through Congressional action, but it was consistently declared both by the Federation officials and the brotherhood presidents that they "did not ask for it and it isn't what we wanted."

A sensational discussion was anticipated with reference to this entire matter, but the subject was smothered because the case is now in court, and an apparent division in the Federation was considered fatal to the interest of the railway men.

The most dramatic moment in the sessions of the Convention came when Samuel Gompers replied to an attack made upon him by a local newspaper, which alleged that he was an extreme radical and a "Socialist," and that he had "raised the red flag" while he was replying to the speeches of the brotherhood presidents. Here is the part of Mr. Gompers's speech which caused the delegates to rise to their feet with prolonged cheers and cries of defiance:

"It is not we who make the attack. We are going to act on the defensive, where we can, whenever it may be politic to act on the defensive. But if the fight is to be made to take from the men, women, and children of our time the advantages which we have secured, then these employers and corporations had better look out. We are not going to be forced back. We will resist, and resist to the utmost.

"The cause of labor is onward and forward; and you Pharisees, who stand in the way and try to drive us into the mire and the miasma of misery and despair, beware ere it is too late!"

It was clearly demonstrated that the delegates realized that the coming year will be one of sharp conflict with employers' associations, and they showed themselves to be in the mood for the fight. "You cannot fool us very much, and you can't frighten us at all," said Mr. Gompers, in discussing corporation attacks on labor.

A legal department was established by the Convention for defense purposes, although a fear was expressed that lawyers might so dominate the Federation as to retard its forward movement; "because," as it was repeatedly stated, "lawyers are all the time searching for precedents—they are looking into the past, whereas we are looking to the future." Hereafter a year-book dealing with the labor movement will be published by the Federation. The question of the high cost of living was handled without gloves, and it was voted to request the Government that a committee be appointed to study and report upon the matter. It was also the opinion of the Convention that an embargo be placed upon food. "Feed America first," was the slogan of the discussion.

There is a decided difference of opinion on the part of some of the international officials with regard to the question of meeting the high cost of living. Some of the organizations affiliated with the American Federation of Labor are determined to force the fight to secure a proportionate increase in wages to meet the higher cost of living, thus placing upon the bosses the burden of getting at the causes of the increased cost of material.

The Federation placed itself on record against militarism, although last year it voted in favor of military training in the public schools. It turned down a similar resolution in Baltimore.

In order clearly to define the position of the American Federation of Labor on the general subject of militarism, a special committee was appointed, whose report was unanimously adopted. A section of the report follows:

> We are unalterably and emphatically opposed to militarism, that system fostered and developed by tyrants with the object of supporting their arbitrary authority and utilized by those whose predatory designs or ambitions for power

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and worldly glory lead them to invade and subdue other nations, destroying their liberties, acquiring their wealth, and fastening the yoke of bondage upon them.

The American trade-union movement is convinced by the experience of mankind that militarism, even in its less horrid manifestations, brutalizes those influenced by the spirit of the institution. Under the baleful thrall of the savage instincts which it arouses, the finer elements of humanity are strangled. Under militarism a pseudo-patriotism is established in the minds of the people wherein men believe that there is nobility and heroism in dying for the glory of a dynasty or the maintenance of institutions which are inimical to human progress and democratic institutions. Militarism is the appeal of arbitrary and irresponsible force as opposed to reason and justice.

Resistance to injustice and tyranny is that virile quality which has given purpose and effect to ennobling causes in all countries and at all times. The institutions of our country and the freedom won by its founders would have been impossible had they been unwilling to die in defense of their liberties. Only a people willing to maintain their rights and defend their liberties are guaranteed free institutions. Conditions foreign to the institutions of our country have prevented the entire abolition of organized bodies of men trained to carry arms. A citizen soldiery supplies what would otherwise take its place, a large standing army—to which we are unalterably opposed as tending to establish militarism in all of its phases. . . .

We declare that the militia of our several States should be organized and controlled by the democratic institutions of our country, so that this voluntary force of citizen soldiery may never be diverted from its true purpose to be used to jeopardize or infringe upon the liberties of our people.

The right to bear arms is a fundamental principle of our Government, a principle regarded at all times by free people as essential to the maintenance of their liberties and institutions. We demand that this right shall remain inviolate.

Dr. Shailer Mathews, President of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, made a hit when he said to the Convention, speaking of the Federal Council's work:

"We are endeavoring, among the various operations of this great body, to bring into the public mind and public conscience of the United States, through the churches, a new conception of morality and the meaning of religion; for we have come to feel that, while it is necessary to prepare men to die, it is more necessary to prepare men to live, and in the interests of a good heaven it is a good idea to have a good earth."

The delegates to the Convention visited Washington to pay their respects to President Wilson. They were received in the East Room. Mr. Gompers acted as spokesman for the visitors. In his address to the delegates President Wilson said that what he had tried to do was "to get rid, not only of any class division in this country, but of any class consciousness and feeling;" that the only way to close up the rifts in the people was "not only to establish justice, but justice with a heart in it, justice with a pulse in it, justice with sympathy in it;" and he added: "Justice can be cold or forbidding, or it can be warm and welcome, and the latter is the only kind of justice that Americans ought to desire. I do not believe that I am deceiving myself when I say that I think this spirit is growing in America. I pray God it may continue to grow, and all I have to say is to exhort every one whom my voice reaches here or elsewhere to come into this common movement of humanity."

One of the fraternal delegates from the British Trades Congress was Harry Gosling, President of the Congress and the Honorable Secretary of the Labor Officials' Temperance Fellowship in England.

The American Federation of Labor voted to celebrate Mr. Gompers's sixty-seventh birthday and the fiftieth anniversary of his wedding by a great demonstration in his honor, to be given in New York on January 27, 1917. The indications are that Mr. Gompers still retains his grip on the labor leaders of America.

The entire Executive Committee, consisting of eleven members, was re-elected. It was rumored that a fight would be made upon Secretary Frank Morrison, but his opponent was not even nominated. Mr. Morrison received the greatest ovation of any of the candidates. John Golden, of the Textile Workers, and Frank Farrington, of the United Mine Workers, were elected fraternal delegates to the British Trades Congress next year. The next Convention of the Federation will be held in Buffalo.

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THE ENGLISH WORKINGMAN AND THE WAR

BY JAMES DAVENPORT WHELPLEY

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT OF THE OUTLOOK IN ENGLAND

NINETY per cent of the soldiers now in the British army worked for a daily wage before the war—that is to say, they have come from the so-called working classes. Never in all their lives before have these men been as well clothed, fed, or looked after in every way. Unless death or serious disability intervenes, the period of the war will, in the future, be looked back upon by most of them as a time of surcease from all the ills of poverty such as had been their lot before, and of freedom from anxiety as to the welfare of their families. Never has the woman had so much cash in hand given to her out of her husband's earnings as the Government now allows for her subsistence, and the soldier knows that if he is killed or crippled a pension will be forthcoming. Only those familiar with the grinding and sordid poverty in which the average English workingman has lived in the past can realize the peaceful and care-free state of mind in which hundreds of thousands of the English soldiers now live.

The workingman who for one reason or another has stayed at home has never before been given the opportunity of earning larger wages, and while the cost of living has greatly increased (about seventy per cent), and the workingman's family is thoroughly unskilled in the art of economical living, it is the employer, whether the Government or a private individual, who has taken the increase largely upon himself.

The real burden of the war has fallen upon what is called in England the lower middle class, in which are found the shopkeepers' assistants, the minor clerks, the men with small single-handed businesses, and others of like incomes. Enlistment has in many cases resulted in permanent loss of position, destruction of business, or interruption of plans for betterment. The pay of the soldier and the Government allowance to families, while they seem liberal to those who have been manual laborers, do not equal the former incomes of these people from the middle classes. Some relief has been afforded by grants made from special funds raised for the purpose, but this relief is not evenly distributed, and when it is received is rarely equal to the loss incurred. In consequence homes have been broken up, the education of children interrupted, and a scale of living adopted for the family necessarily considerably below the standard of pre-war days.

It is these people who will suffer most from the war and who will have no chance after the war to secure redress, for they are not combined in effective organizations and are subject to competition from every one seeking employment who may be of the same class and whose qualifications for employment consist principally of the need for money on which to live. They will be crushed between the class below and the class above, as they have always been and always will be. These people are looked upon as negligible in politics or industry. There are always more than enough of them; women can often take the places of men, and they can call no halt to any activity of the nation should they attempt to attract attention to their grievances through some concerted action, for of this they are incapable.

Money and property possess great power in England, and until the coming of this war had been able to keep the activities of organized labor well under control. The capitalistic stronghold was by 1914 being seriously threatened, however. Its stoutest battlements were being undermined, and it had been only through almost ignominious compromise that disaster had been averted. A Liberal Government had joined with labor in an attack upon vested rights and interests long held to be inviolable. In July, 1914, the country was on the verge of great industrial strikes and lockouts, seemingly inevitable. Then came the war with its reactions, and the war has proved a temporary solvent of a serious situation.

The conflict between labor and capital, which in England is more of a class war than it is elsewhere, has been only postponed, however, and the question now most frequently asked, aside from conjecture as to the probable duration of the war, is as to what is going to happen in the days of peace to come. Will things be taken up just where they were left off? Has the war brought new difficulties, or has it perhaps decreased those of former days?

To the workingman who has been in the

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trenches from the beginning the England of to-day is the England of before the war. To the workingman who has been recently "combed out" of industry and sent to the front the England he is leaving reluctantly is a country of unlimited work at high wages. Life is too strenuous in the trenches and matters of immediate concern are too vivid to give much opportunity for thought as to the future. Society in each military unit is too "mixed" to allow of any community of decision as to what will be done when the army goes "home." With four million or more industrial workers away at war, no programme can be fixed upon authoritatively by those who remain in England.

There were about nine million industrial workers in England in July, 1914, and a few more than two million of these were women. In the past two years the places of 766,000 men have been taken by women, 263,000 of these being in industrial occupations to which organization in labor is largely confined. If there are six million people now industrially employed in England, two and a half million of these must be women. The basic industries are still largely operated by men, however. Through their control of railways, mines, ship-building, and heavy transport the men still have the upper hand in any dispute, no matter how far the dilution of labor may have gone in other directions.

What is ahead of English industry as soon as war conditions disappear is fairly well indicated in the proposals made by the Parliamentary Committee of the Trades Union Congress. This Committee has announced that at the end of the war labor will ask that the following programme be adopted: "Membership in a trade union to be compulsory; a compulsory forty-eight-hour working week in every occupation; a compulsory minimum wage of 30 shillings ($7.50) for all adult workers; no reduction in present wages or increase in working hours; complete recognition by employers of trade unions and of agreements entered into between the unions and employers' associations; state unemployment pay for men and women out of work; and the settlement by the unions of conditions of women's labor after the war."

There is no announcement of a proposed abandonment of restriction of output or of a demand upon employers to abandon restriction of wages, the two most important considerations in readjusting the relations of labor to capital if an effort is to be made to place the productiveness of British industry on a par with that of America, Germany, or Belgium. Not long ago some of the labor leaders wrote letters to the newspapers admitting that restriction of output was unscientific and a serious handicap to the competitive power of England in resisting import and in increasing export.

Loud cheers were given to this sentiment by English employers. They also wrote letters to the newspapers in which they referred to these labor leaders as "wise patriots." After the applause had subsided the labor men again came forward and said of course they meant that the English workingman would abandon his restriction of output if the employer would no longer restrict wages and would not lower the piece price to those who were earning more than average pay. This suggestion was received in silence by the employers—a silence which still continues—and much of the enthusiasm over the "patriotism" of the British workingman has apparently subsided to normal level, which, by the way, is rather low.

In the past two years British labor has been swept off its feet in the rising tide of war necessity. Things have come to pass that a few months ago were pronounced as impossible of acceptance. At various times it was stated that their adoption would mean revolution, or at least a serious tying up of industry; but there has been no revolution and industry has continued its activities at a forced pace. Among the things that were said to be impossible were conscription, dilution of skilled labor with unskilled, the free employment of women, and industrial compulsion in any form. These have all prevailed one at a time, with occasional local trouble and much heated argument, but really with remarkably little serious inconvenience to the public or to the Government in its vast occupation of manufacturing war equipment at over four thousand establishments now under the control of the Ministry.

Union labor has been unhorsed, but is clinging desperately to the stirrup in hopes of regaining its seat in the industrial saddle. Certain pledges have been given by the Government and some of the larger employers to the effect that pre-war conditions would be restored when the fighting was over. It is growing more and more evident that no human power will be equal to the task. Things will never be again as they were before the war, though the nation may have to pass

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through a bitter experience before this is a realized and accepted fact.

The demand on the part of labor that the unions shall determine the conditions under which women shall be employed means that their competition with male labor is to be restricted, and gives promise of a sex war even more bitter than that which has been fought over the suffrage. A minimum wage and some form of unemployment insurance may come to pass without serious opposition, for these schemes for the betterment of labor conditions have already found favor with the Liberal party. Compulsory unionism and no reduction of wages from present scales will be controversial matters and will have to be fought out between employer and employed before a settlement can be reached. The net result will probably be a compromise. The opinion of the Government authorities, who are guided by the advice of large employers, is indicated plainly in all wage controversies now arising. Day after day one branch of trade or another makes demand for increased pay, ostensibly to meet increased cost of living.

The men always demand an increase of wages. A settlement is generally reached whereby the men get more money but not in the form of an increased wage. It is paid as a "war bonus." Both sides to the controversy are looking to the future. The men want wages raised so that they can demand a continuance of the same rates later after the war. The public or private employer is not averse to paying more money for work done at the present moment, for the justice of the plea that food is costing more is realized. This same employer knows, however, that it is much more difficult and more provocative of trouble to lower wages than it is to do away with bonuses, so a compromise is reached by the payment of a liberal increase in pay in the shape of a war bonus but with no technical increase in wages. It is hoped by the employers that when a marked decline in the cost of living takes place, as will undoubtedly come to pass soon after war conditions are at an end, it will not be difficult to cut off certain payments made obviously to meet a condition of affairs no longer existing.

But a few weeks ago England was threatened with a general tie-up of all the railways. The men were already in receipt of a five-shilling war bonus. They asked for an increase of ten shillings in wages. The struggle was sharp but short. It was well understood that the money asked was not the real matter in dispute. Supported by public opinion as to the criminality of a strike at this time, the Government stood firm on principle but yielded in the matter of money. Wages remained the same, but the war bonus was increased from five to ten shillings a week. Weekly wages, even including war bonuses, have not gone up in such measure as the cost of living has increased, except to the comparatively small number who are doing extraordinarily well on piece-work; but, with the improvement of transport and distribution that is promised by the Government as coming soon, the cost of living may very possibly decrease by spring to such a degree as to make the average earnings of labor equal to what they were before the war, if not better. Women who have gone in for munition work are making higher wages, as compared with the possibilities open to female labor before the war, than are a majority of the men, and no little jealousy is found among the male workers in consequence.

A remarkable condition will confront English industry after the war. The country is now one vast machine shop. In the early days of the war machine tools were purchased on English account in all parts of the world at any price that might be asked. It was a notorious fact in America a year or so ago that a large metal-turning lathe could not be had for love or money, owing to the demand from Europe. English works that covered an acre two years ago now cover many times that amount of ground, and here, there, and everywhere factories have sprung up overnight, as it were, and are now the hives from which the thousands upon thousands of newly trained workmen and workwomen are turning out military equipment.

This transformation of a country that a short time ago worked at conservative speed, each factory in its own way and under its own methods, into a feverishly active community, restrained by no union rules or walking delegates and less given to drink than has been the case for many years, is one of the remarkable results of this war. Enthusiasts who view this condition are immediately inspired to dreams of a future in which England, with the world at peace, will switch all this skillfully directed energy and willing labor onto the manufacture of goods for home consumption and for export without the loss of a day and without a hitch due to any

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necessary changes in ownership, direction, and management. These dreams will not come true, however, in the very nature of things, especially English nature and English things. There is going to be a period of vast reaction and relaxation of effort as soon as peace shall come. How long this may last will depend largely upon the terms of the treaty that must be made between labor and capital before the new epoch is inaugurated.

For years labor has been insistently demanding an increased share of the increment earned by capital invested in industry. Not getting this in the amount considered as due, the spirit of labor has become revengeful rather than progressive. English unionism has been a fight against capital rather than a fight for labor. English capital is of exclusive habit and unsympathetic nature. It will do better for itself when it becomes more democratic and responds more readily to human need.

One interesting result of the war has been the complete collapse of internationalism in labor. In July, 1914, there existed an agreement between the labor organizations of the larger countries of Europe to the effect that, if war should threaten, everything possible was to be done, even to the point of a great international "down tools," to defeat the intention of any government belligerently inclined. This agreement was especially definite between the English and the German labor interests. When war came, this agreement vanished as completely as if it had never been thought of. Members of the same international brotherhood took up arms against each other without question or hesitation, and thus labor organization lost all semblance of being a power in international affairs. That this was a bitter disappointment to some of the English labor leaders is undoubtedly true, and some of these men went so far in their efforts to keep England out of war as to expose themselves to serious charges of disloyalty. This attitude did not remain for long, however, for they soon realized that they stood alone and that no help was forthcoming from any country on the Continent. This disappointment brought with it a reaction to another extreme, and these same men are now among the most earnest of those who would carry on the war until it is fought to some decision. Labor is now so completely nationalized that when certain American labor leaders recently suggested co-operation with the English unions in an attempt to influence the final peace negotiations, to the end that the general cause of labor throughout the world might benefit, the Americans were practically told to mind their own business and that English labor would act entirely upon its own judgment.

There is one direction in which the influence of labor is extremely powerful in English politics, and that is in its almost unanimous opposition to the protection of English industry by means of import duties. The German trade bogy does not seem to have frightened the English laborer from this position, in spite of all the uproar as to foreign competition after the war. The faith of a few in the wisdom of free trade for English industry has been somewhat shaken, but the great strength of the free-trade sentiment in England still lies with two classes—the workingmen and the "intellectuals." In the guise of a guard against German "dumping," and for the purpose of giving preference to oversea parts of the Empire, a scheme of moderate import duties may come to England in the near future, but it will be an experiment to which many Englishmen will agree reluctantly and with grave doubts as to its real utility or economic wisdom.

The effect of war upon English labor has, on the whole, been beneficial. The workers who are absent on pressing errands of Empire are being well cared for, as are the families they leave behind. Those who are at home are doing better for themselves than ever before. The standard of living has been raised for the families of all and the drink evil has been controlled to a marked degree. A feeling of independence has come to the worker. For the first time in his life he has money to spend, and he is spending it. A sense of power comes naturally to man or woman who is in demand for what he or she can do. Unchecked by union restrictions, the wage-earner is getting all the money he can, and the employer is getting more labor per man. There is a spirit of freedom and exhilaration throughout the industrial world that has given rise to a vast optimism as to the future.

The employer is biding his time, however, for he is better aware that all existing conditions are artificial. He is increasing his plant, setting aside a goodly portion of his profits as reserve, and fighting for definitions of terms rather than for actual advantage which he does not need just now. He is paying large war bonuses, but not high wages. He is

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training new workers that he may have some leverage on the labor market in the days to come when the cost of production must be reduced.

The workingmen in the trenches are fighting side by side with their employers for a common purpose, with no place for jealousies, and all in good fellowship. They are writing home to the effect that they do not see why this status of affairs should not maintain in industry after the war. It should in theory, and in some cases it will continue to a certain degree; but when the nation goes back to the old order and no man can have more than he earns, the bitterness of the struggle will again cloud the vision of both employer and employed, and what is done in the great workshops and the mines will represent to the worker merely the minimum effort that must be given for the maximum wage to be secured, and to the employer the maximum labor that can be secured for the minimum wage that must be paid.

The problem of the relations of labor and capital is as old as man, and even this great war will bring no real solution. The controversy will be carried on in England as long as it exists anywhere in the world, for that is the way of the English. Liberty of thought and action is a precious possession, and it soon dies out of a too unanimous nation.

London, England

SWISS FEELING ABOUT THE WAR

BY SANFORD GRIFFITH

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT OF THE OUTLOOK

"HAD we fulfilled the German definition of neutrality, '*stille setzen*,' there would long since have been nothing left to defend. They all look to us for some peculiar brand of neutrality. They ask of us the impossible."

De Reynold, one of the foremost Swiss historians, now a staff officer and one of the founders and leading spirits in the Swiss Nationalist Society, then defined the vigorous neutrality Switzerland feels herself obliged to maintain. As he spoke of the menace on all sides from without, his arm designed a curve suggestive of the scythe which would have cut down his compatriots had they not been continually on the alert. Such was his authority and fervor that I quite forgot his rather diminutive size. My uncertainty as to his age had made me hesitate on first meeting whether to address him as the colleague or venerated professor of the young friend who had given me a letter of introduction. Over the desk hung the portrait of an eighteenth-century ancestor, a haughty old patrician of Freiburg. His descendant so resembled this old soldier that he could have stepped into his uniform. It was not the simple Swiss burgher who spoke, but the proud defender of a long tradition. "We Swiss have a common heritage of liberty to defend. Our first task since the war has been to clear suspicion within, a suspicion due largely to insidious disintegrating forces from without. Neutrality in the face of such odds has at times seemed even less attractive than war."

"Should neutrals chloroform themselves until the end of the war?" asks Lombard. In reply to taunts from without Millhoud protested, vigorously, "*Neutre ne veut pas signifier pleutre.*" (A neutral doesn't mean a numskull.)

Forces working from without have been the most immediate menace to Swiss unity. In a previous article I emphasized German propaganda both because of its extent and intensity. It reached directly the German two-thirds of the Swiss population. The German conception of neutrality was perhaps the most extraordinary of all. Hermann Onchen, of Heidelberg, in his book "Germany or England" defines the neutral state as a small organism which fattens itself by profiting from the discords of greater ones. Arnold von Salis in "Between War and Peace" declares: "Who is not for us is against us. There is no word in German for neutrality." "We mourn that a people of such sound German stock—'*tüchtige allmanische Stamm*,'" declared Gustav Rothe, "can sit at the feet of a struggle which throws in the balance the very name and soul of Germany."

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A crescendo is reached in the impassioned appeal of Hans Muhlstern: "Our Fatherland calls you, . . . asks that you join your arms with ours. Unite yourselves to the heart of Europe. Strike down with your strong arm the black pest in France. Europe will be grateful to you even to the most distant future." A few German-Swiss were inspired to action by the appeal of *Deutschtum*. One Protestant pastor declared from his pulpit that were Christ returned to earth he would be working a mitrailleuse in the front ranks of the German army. Such outbursts fortunately were rare. France too looked for support from Switzerland in what she believed to be a war of aggression, of democracy against militarism. To hold aloof seemed "neutrality before the crime."

A French-Swiss officer of my acquaintance in Berlin confessed to me that so strong is his sympathy for the German cause that he avoids returning to his home in Lausanne, where he feels himself among the enemy. But expressions of opinion by transplanted Swiss are no criterion. One of the phenomena of the war is the facility with which foreigners in European capitals take on the mental color of their environment. If anything, they become *plus royalist que le roi*. Our own American colonies in Paris and Berlin have their full share of Americans who imagine that they speak for America, when in reality they represent only the most obvious public opinion about them. No harm would be done did not the people in whose midst they live listen to their opinions as representative of America. The Swiss colonies are no exception to the rule. The editor of the "Mercure de France," a Swiss long transplanted in France, has gone so far as to declare publicly that his German-Swiss compatriots are nothing but *Boches*, and are not fit to be called Swiss. If an individual who considers himself Swiss shows such lack of understanding, it is not surprising that French and German critics have inaccurately judged public opinion in Switzerland.

Causes of friction within may be defined as fundamental and superficial. Many misunderstandings between French and German-Swiss have been due to temperamental differences. The *Suisse romande* (French-Swiss) is a Latin, emotional, an idealist, close in sympathy with the French. He is violently anti-German by reason and instinct. In politics—as one of the races in minority—he is a provincialist, against centralization, quick to defend any infringement of what he considers his local rights. His democracy is more personal than the liberalism of his German-Swiss neighbor.

The German-Swiss, on the other hand, is a serious, unimaginative toiler. First and last, he knows his fields or his shop and has no particular antipathy for any people. In politics he is a materialist, a firm believer in *Realpolitik*. If he makes a treaty, he does it, not for sentimental reasons, but because it pays. He believes in sound, well-organized government. He looks on the political ferment frequent in Suisse romande and unending in the Ticino with the placid tolerance of an elder brother. Because centralized government tends to strengthen the state and his position in the state he favors every increase of Federal power. He believes in a strong army on a German model. His democracy, in contradiction to that of his French-Swiss neighbor, is more national, less personal.

The French-Swiss feel so deeply their parentage and their political ideals that they are frequently embarrassed in their relations with their neighbors. The wife of a Protestant pastor whose daughter is married to a French-Swiss officer confessed to me that she and her daughter now speak a different language. When the family is united, she said, the war as a topic of conversation must be studiously avoided. Passers-by speaking German are looked at askance on the streets of Geneva, although German is a national language. On the other hand, you may talk English, French, or Japanese on the streets of Bern, Zurich, or any other German-Swiss city without attracting the slightest attention. One German-Swiss—a Francophile of the noisiest sort—in the early days of the war put a phonograph on his balcony and played the "Marseillaise" from morn till night. An occasional passer-by lifted his hat or hissed, but the majority passed unnoticing. Had this been in any French-Swiss town and the "Wacht am Rhein" the anthem, a small riot would have followed. A German-Swiss officer called my attention to the Lausanne flag incident to illustrate this difference. A German consular flag which hung low over the street was pulled down and trampled on by the mob. "You could have hung a flag of any color here in Zurich," he observed, "and no one would have noticed it. We have all we can do to rouse these unemotional German-Swiss to open enthusiasm for our own flag."

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If the French-Swiss are hypersensitive in regard to the war, their German fellow-countrymen may well be considered too placid. These German-Swiss showed no particular reaction on the invasion of Belgium or the destruction of Rheims, two acts in particular which set *la Suisse romande* aflame. A dangerous lack of susceptibility, it seemed, even to their own leaders. Karl Spitteler, the *doyen* of Swiss bards, and Professor Vetter, a brilliant German-Swiss classicist, among others, have come out in eloquent appeals for a higher national sense as against German domination of their public opinion. Spitteler, though he could count, as he admitted, the number of his French friends on the fingers of one hand, declared it his obligation to make a conscious effort to understand the French cause. "German-Swiss seem to have forgotten that a frontier exists. Since they are talking so much about parentage, are we not equally related to the French? . . . We must not forget the service France has been to us as the standard-bearer of a higher democratic culture. We must not forget that England, for whom certain Swiss express a hatred equal to that of the Germans, has always proved herself our most trustworthy ally." These patriots feel that their neutrality carries with it an obligation to recognize a national indebtedness for cultural impetus to France and England as well as to Germany.

The Swiss press shows clearly the evolution in public opinion since the beginning of war. German-Swiss at first were convinced of the invincibility of German arms. "They will be in Paris within three weeks," was common *Bierhalle* opinion. The press swelled with accounts of brilliant German exploits. The Russians were barbaric hordes; the French, poor victims of unscrupulous Albion. Germany simply could not lose. The war would soon be over. These German-Swiss papers more than echoed German opinion. At the same time, the French-Swiss swung to the opposite pole in a glorification of France. But German-Swiss ardor cooled when the people saw the predicted brilliant conclusion more and more distant. Had the Allies launched their campaign by a series of victories, most German-Swiss would have reconciled themselves to a German defeat. In general, to-day they would fear a complete German victory but would mourn Germany's defeat. Above all, they want peace; peace without and peace within. Deluged in German propaganda, they soon discounted all of it, and "*dass Mann uns ruhig lässt*" was all they asked. An example of this change came to the writer's attention in a local Swiss sheet, one of a large Catholic group solid in support of the German cause. The editor published several articles appreciative of French democracy. When asked how he, as an exception to his Catholic colleagues, happened to take the trouble to explain French ideals, he waved his hand toward a pile of local German-Swiss papers and mentioned the name of half a dozen now showing a tolerant interest in the Allied cause. He asserted that the German-Swiss had not ground for ill feeling toward either French or English. The broad German dialect in which this little Swiss editor justified his feeling for France made his attitude even more striking.

Present-day relations between Germany and German-Swiss vary according to classes. Certain upper-class families of Bern and Basel are intermarried with German families, and naturally feel a real bond of sympathy. Then there are extensive German interests in Switzerland which command and deserve the loyalty of their Swiss correspondents. Swiss peasants along the border and the South Germans opposite speak the same dialect and share the same simple Catholic faith. They market, have fairs and other daily intercourse with each other. But in the industrial classes there is a distinct anti-German feeling. It is much the hostility of the French *midi* factory hand who sees his Italian competitor "taking the bread from his mouth." They call these Germans *Schwoben*, a word with a rather unpleasant connotation. The cultural attraction of German-Swiss to Germany, however, is more powerful than any of these, a thought domination which explains largely why there has never been a distinctly national German-Swiss artistic movement beyond the limited domain of domestic art.

The press of *la Suisse romande* (French Switzerland) rallied to the French cause and has remained there. Its *intransigeance* has done much to heighten the tension between the different Switzerlands. Both the "Journal de Genève" and the "Gazette de Lausanne," among the more liberal of them, have an enormous circulation in France, a fact which may help to explain a very persistent rumor that their copy passes through the French Consulate for approval. In all parts of Switzerland I was warned not to

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take the Swiss papers as a true expression of public opinion. However, here, though in a lesser degree perhaps than in the German-Swiss cantons, there is an interesting effort made toward a common understanding.

In the press, as in other branches of community activity, an effort has been made for better understanding. Prior to the war and too freely to-day the French-Swiss press was fed from Paris and the German-Swiss press from Berlin and Frankfort. Practically nothing in Switzerland was translated from papers of one language into those of the other two. To remedy this a national press bureau was organized at Bern by the New Helvetical Society, which now supplies Swiss papers with the best in all three languages. In its first year, 1915, it inspired in a legitimate way over two thousand editorials, and in its second year twice this number. The editors themselves have given their hearty co-operation. Its most positive result has been to reduce the field of free propaganda from outside.

Foremost among the forces making for national solidarity has been the disruptive force of war itself. It is axiomatic that force from without hastens consolidation within. Necessity for common economic action to ward off the hunger threatened by closed frontiers has drawn the people together. All classes have shown a willingness to have a part in solving these national problems.

One of the leading organizations with a national non-partisan mission is the New Helvetical Society, with a membership which has increased from a group of twelve to over eighteen hundred. Its purpose is "to safeguard the national patrimony, to work to the extent of its strength to fortify national sentiment, and to prepare the way for the nobler Switzerland of the future." More than this, the New Helvetical Society strives to develop a sense of common tolerance between different parts of the country. I mentioned the purchase of a large illustrated weekly formerly syndicated by Germans as one of the first steps in this direction. This led to the organization of the National Press Association. A commercial pact has also been made between Swiss merchants to give over their windows one week in the year exclusively to the exposition of Swiss goods.

The army is the ideal school for the creation of patriotic sentiment. Many Swiss-German regiments are now quartered in the Ticino, in the fertile valleys of *la Suisse romande*, and along the shores of Lake Geneva. There has been a general exchange of courtesies. Young French-Swiss are charmed by the homely hospitality of their German-Swiss neighbors. Numerous books published of notes from the field show naïve surprise at the good will of their fellow-countrymen, and as impressions are full of common sense and honest appreciation. A series of lectures, prepared largely by de Reynold, has also been published for the general information of the men. In chatting with a large number of recruits the writer was impressed by the general knowledge this training has given even some of the rawest mountaineers.

Education is now being directed along more national lines. In the French schools where provincialism was greatest German is now a required subject, designed to facilitate intercourse of students from different cantons. French has long been a required language in the German-Swiss schools. My esteemed friend Dr. Bouvier, of Geneva, is one of the organizers and president of a society of university professors exclusively of Swiss nationality. This is another of several organizations which propose to combat every subversive foreign influence. As a commentary on a lack of national sense, it may be noted that some professors declined an invitation to join because of the exclusion of their foreign colleagues. General co-operation has, however, made the society a considerable force in counteracting a tendency to cosmopolitan weakness.

Universities present the same problems of outside influence. Foreign professors on the Swiss faculties are numerous. This is partly due to the disproportionate number of universities to the size of the country, and the necessity for looking outside for technical experts in certain branches. Basel, for example, has a faculty of forty-three, twenty of whom are German or Austrian. The technical school of Zurich has also a half-foreign staff. War declared, it became evident that some were not mobilized in order to serve as propagandists for their country. One extraordinary individual, when Spitteler made his appeal for understanding of the French and English as well as German causes, asked the opinion of his class about this declaration. Those who approved he attempted to expel. But in all fairness it must be said of the majority that they have kept aloof from such subversive propaganda as their governments may have demanded of them.

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The writer has been impressed, from talking with Swiss in all parts, by their sincere desire to further better understanding. There are differences in ideals and interests which make conflicts inevitable, but there is also a growing feeling that, while Switzerland must receive much from the outside world, she also has something to protect and something to give. A letter to the writer from a Swiss among the foremost in this new nationalist movement contained this passage: "What superiority have we to excuse our pride in a selfish neutrality? What is our justification in remaining aloof in the midst of such suffering and struggle? Does not our civilization call us to enter and fight for the right? But where is the right? We cannot agree."

But there is another appeal, and to this the Swiss have responded generously—the cry of humanity. It has been a field for common Swiss co-operation and has helped for better co-operation within the country. Whether French, German, or Italian, all were received with equal generosity. After the Belgians came the Serbs. All found shelter and a home. Swiss surgeons have died on many battlefields. Efforts to stamp out typhus in Serbia called for a sacrifice of other Swiss lives. Then in both directions there passed trains of severely wounded. Cripples, both French and German, have described to me, with tears in their eyes, the warm-hearted greeting they received from the Swiss at every station. One of the vividest memories the writer carried away from his last visit to Switzerland was the sight of a train-load of French wounded leaving Bern for France. The men had arms filled with gifts and flowers. Though pale and broken, their faces were radiant. They hung out of the windows and shouted in French to the sympathetic crowds, many of whom could reply only in German. The train disappeared in the distance before the last cheer died away: "*Vive la Suisse!*" The Cross of Geneva is an appropriate national emblem for the rôle of humanitarian Switzerland in this great war.

THE GERMAN PEOPLE AND THE WAR

BY MRS. H. H. GALLISON

This is the second of three articles by an American woman of German birth describing her experiences in a visit to Germany in the summer of this year. The first article appeared in The Outlook for November 29.—THE EDITORS.

COMING from a country of peace, prosperity, and tranquillity, I was roused to admiration of the women of Germany. In all the warring countries it is the woman who bears the greatest burden, the anguish, the misery, and the heartache. It was an inspiration to me to see how wonderfully the women of Germany—the *Hausfrau*, the factory worker, the social leader, the artist, and the peasant woman—have responded to the nation's need. The uplifting influence of my daily experiences among them will live with me as the richest possession gained by my ten weeks in the Fatherland.

Great numbers of the vacancies left by husbands, brothers, and sons have been taken—and Government officials always impressed me how ably—by the women, many of whom had lived a life of ease and luxury. The great problem of feminism in Germany, which had, on account of the great number of women workers, become vexatious to the Government, the war bids fair to solve. The gaps the men will leave the women will fill. Woman's status as a worker and as a citizen appears to have been permanently established. Minor governmental offices, positions as clerks, secretaries, letter-carriers, executives in commercial institutions, street-car conductors, and, in some cities, motormen—these are a few of the various jobs that, by reason of the war, the German women fill to-day.

The natural occupations of woman, nursing and teaching, with which we in America usually associate her, have now, of course, called her in greater numbers; and, wonderful to relate, she is replacing the male teachers in the lower and middle grades of some

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gymnasiums. The number of young girls to be trained as kindergartners, to take care of the soldiers' children when the wives must do the husbands' work, is steadily increasing.

I saw one of the new kindergartens. It was in an ordinary house, surrounded by a little garden. The principal was a trained nurse. She had the care of twenty-five children. These were divided into four classes according to their age, from two to six years, and each class had a room by itself, with little tables and tiny chairs. The principal had four young girls, who had left the public schools at fourteen or fifteen years of age, whom she was training to become efficient children's maids. They were taught to clean the house properly, to wash the children, to sew and repair children's clothes, and something about the modern preparation of children's food. After one year's course they receive a diploma. At the same time this woman taught two kindergartners the practical work that follows graduation from the theoretical courses. They played with the children, taught them all kinds of games and how to devise their own games. The children were particularly encouraged to invent new toys. The collection of toys, some novel and showing inventive power, surprised me. Germany hopes to establish many such small kindergartens.

A startling revelation was the power to organize which women, coming from the humdrum life of their housewifely surroundings, evinced. *Frauenvereine* (women's societies) for relief work are to be found in every city and town in the Empire, and it is impossible to estimate their manifold beneficent activities.

I should like to tell the story of what one *Hausfrau* accomplished. Not to have any unnecessary waste, the German Government had ordered a week in which all cast-off clothing, blankets, and rugs were to be collected. The *Reichswollensammlung* (Imperial Wool Collection) had taken place all over Germany, and the Government had gathered a tremendous quantity. After this official harvest a woman of Hamburg, Frau Dettmer, concluded that the people had not given up all their cast-offs, and she instituted a private collection. She began among her neighbors and friends, and was so successful that the city authorities fostered her scheme on a large scale. When I saw her collection of wool, I found it established in a large warehouse several stories high. She had districted the city, and one day each month detailed Boy Scouts to collect every piece of wool or cotton and all old shoes that people would give. They were put into furniture vans and driven to the disinfecting establishment. Then they were warehoused, usually filling one of the large halls up to the ceiling.

Here a great sorting of material ensued; woolens were separated from cottons, men's suits from women's dresses; all men's clothing resorted, the worst from the better and the best. Most of the best suits were speedily made serviceable; from the better, bad parts were cut off and smaller suits made for boys; from the worst, good pieces were cut out and, with other material fashioned into hospital shoes, quilts, and covers. The same was done with the women's dresses. What could not be thus used was sent to the mill for shoddy. Old boots were repaired, small boots and shoes were made of big boots. The day I was there a thousand pairs of cast-off boots capable of doing good service were made ready for sale.

A professional bootmaker, tailor, and dressmaker were hard at work, with more than a hundred women, boys, and girls helping. And such cheery workers—singing, talking, and laughing! We were loth to pass from the room. In the master cobbler we found a reincarnation of Hans Sachs, who, as he sat before his booted block, worked away and sang his orders to his boy apprentices.

All the clothes finished in this establishment are sold to the women and children of the soldiers and to the incapacitated from the front. At one of the *Verkaufsstellen* (sales-places) I was informed that one volunteer, a woman, had created a sales record of fourteen thousand marks.

The keynote of every internal effort and the reason for its success is the German's obedience—bred in the soul of boy and girl—the natural respect for superiority where it exists, and the passionate desire to serve his country to the utmost of his ability.

II

The spirit of ancient Greece, where the individual sank his personality for the common good, has been revivified in Germany. The national idea of "one for all" has never more splendidly proved itself than in this great crisis in Germany. The citizen yields his individuality and takes and fills his place in the general scheme. An idler does not exist; each

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is a cog in the machine. System, order, efficiency! Whether it be in Government, in industry, in agriculture, in the food problem (its distribution to the poor, to the men at the front, to the hospitals, to the widows at home, to the orphan), in the care of the prisoners, or in the management of public utilities, everywhere order prevails. Everywhere discipline carries out the plan, for the individual realizes that he thus best serves the state, his city, his neighbor, and himself.

The war has compelled co-operation in many things that might well strain a less self-disciplined people to the breaking point. What has cost Germany's enemies months—aye, a year and more—to learn, she was able to command almost instantly. She offers humanity a lesson in real preparedness, civil as well as martial; and her preparedness, animated by the national will, is the message of one mind to the limbs of one body. We in America may well study Germany—whatever the outcome of the war—for nothing less than this proved miracle has kept the armed world thus far outside her borders.

Countless war kitchens are maintained throughout the Empire. To me, as an American, they were intensely interesting. Here the poor were fed. I visited many of them. Large restaurants, huge halls, and the basements of theaters were used. Immense kettles were filled with potatoes, vegetables, and meat, and boiled to a soup. In tubs containing several gallons this soup was carried into the dining-hall, where it was ladled out into quart bowls. The people, who stood in line, received a quart for a five-cent ticket, which they ate sitting down on benches and chairs before long tables. Some brought pails and took several quarts home. I helped dish out the soup several times, but did not work as continuously as the other ladies, because the people fascinated me. Every one seemed to relish his meal; looked contented. I singled out from my customers a humpback and his little son, perhaps eight or nine years old. The father bought four quarts, which he received in two bowls and a pail, into which I managed to put a large piece of several ribs, with considerable meat and fat. The boy finished his quart first. Then the father gave him part of his. When this was gone, he poured some of the soup from the pail into his boy's bowl and gave him the titbit of the dinner. The meat and the fat the little fellow scraped off the ribs with his spoon, but there was some left which he could not get. Nevertheless he scraped and scraped. Finally I said to him, "Take hold of the bone with your fingers and see what you can do." The boy looked round to see whether he was watched, and then took hold with one hand. As this did not help him much, he was persuaded at last, very reluctantly, to use both hands and had a glorious time, while the father beamed on him, his whole figure glowing in satisfaction at the little fellow's appetite. I asked myself, "How is it possible for such a little body to store away such quantities of food? And it must be delicious." When I tried to buy a quart to taste and see how long it would satisfy me, I was refused; I had failed to get my ticket the day before. (It is in this way that the kitchen knows for how many people to cook, so that no one goes hungry.) They gave me, however, a small cupful without any meat in it. I found it palatable, and I believe a quart, if I could eat as much at one time, would have satisfied me for a half a day. Workingmen sometimes eat two quarts at a meal.

Every city has several places where the people can get food in this way, and the serving of the food is invariably done by young girls and women of the upper classes. Besides these *Kriegskuechen* there are places where for ten cents you get a somewhat richer soup, served in a plate, which you may have filled several times. Sometimes you even get a dessert of cooked fruit.

III

We in America have been led to believe that there is discord in Germany, and particularly that the Socialists are the stumbling-block in the Government's conduct of the war and its affairs at home. With the exception of Liebknecht and a few of his followers, the Sozial-Demokraten are heart and soul for the cause. The scant attention that Liebknecht's perversive orations receive in the Reichstag and among the people assuredly does not merit the scare-heads of our dailies at home.

The loyalty of the Socialists was strongly illustrated to me when I was invited to see one of their so-called *Konsumvereine* (co-operative stores), called "*Produktion*." It was conceived by common workmen, founded by them, and is run by them. By buying at the source and selling without the help of the middleman they reduce the "high cost of living." These *Konsumvereine* enable the

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workman to make his wages go nearly twice as far.

The gentleman who conducted us is the principal manager. A well-known merchant of Hamburg, who accompanied me, assured me that this Mr. Schmidt's abilities could command a salary of 20,000 marks in any large commercial house. In this position in *Produktion* he receives a salary of 4,000 marks a year and will never get any more; it is the law among the Sozial-Demokraten to give only living wages, and yet this man seemed content to live up to his ideals.

Produktion occupies a large block, having many spacious inner courts. The building contains mostly apartments for workingmen's families. The rent is low and fixed. The apartments were light and airy; each had a pretty balcony decorated with boxes of blooming flowers, so that the court and street sides gave one a cheerful greeting. The lower floors, the cellar, and part of the upper floors of this big block were used for business purposes.

The first thing that was shown me was the large packing-room. A thousand carcasses, oxen and pigs, are sent here every day. The meat is salted, smoked, and made into sausages or put up in tins, the bulk of the products going, almost without profit, to the front. A great deal was done by hand, partly to give work to a great many women and partly because the work of *Produktion* was suddenly trebled by the war. Besides the packing-room I was shown their grocery department—enormous warerooms full of coffee, rice, flour, beans, spices, tea, cocoa, and all sorts of preserves.

That the Socialists delighted in serving the state was emphasized to me at every turn.

IV

Germany, like all the other warring countries, did not have hospitals enough to accommodate all the wounded. Therefore school buildings, sanitariums, and large private houses are used and wooden barrack hospitals have been erected. The largest camp of barrack hospitals in North Germany was erected at Lübeck. I spent one day visiting it. A large field was covered with the buildings, stretched along in endless rows. There were barracks for the wounded of the enemy, for internal diseases, for contagious diseases, for cripples, for tubercular cases, with out-of-door porches; barracks used solely for the entertainment of the wounded, where they received their friends and relatives, where they listened to lectures and concerts, and where plays were given for them and all kinds of amusement provided; libraries, where newspapers and periodicals of all countries were lying on the tables; great kitchen and laundry barracks; and barracks where the Red Cross nurses had their quarters.

There were no dangerously sick at this camp. The soldiers were up and about, much occupied in vying with each other in working the gardens that front their homes. One soldier, in front of his trellised arbor grown over with luxuriant vines, had succeeded in erecting a miniature fountain. Everywhere labor of love, that sought expression in beauty! Precious indeed were the flowers after the tedious confinement in the ugly trenches! Some, here to serve, raised vegetables, rabbits, and even pigs. It was a bright world. To it distant friends and families added cheer until their love seemed to radiate over it. To many of the soldiers the Lübeck hospital camp gave them their life's longest holiday.

The laundry work for this great camp hospital is stupendous, and the mending of clothes and the sewing for the soldiers unending. Every day, morning and afternoon, the ladies from Lübeck assemble here to mend and sew, and what is not accomplished on schedule is sent to the houses. One of my cousins once received forty-one pairs of socks with the request to mend them in three days.

The third and last article in this series will deal with Germany's care for her crippled soldiers and her efforts to make them self-supporting, with the sentiments of soldiers and civilians about the Allies and their attitude toward Americans, with the unity of German feeling as to the war and the War Lord, and with the great longing for peace that is now prevalent in Germany

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THE MILITARY PHILOSOPHY OF GERMANY

BY LYMAN ABBOTT

NIETZSCHE and Treitschke are, of modern authors, the two probably most responsible for the present dominant political and moral thinking of the German people. The philosophy of Nietzsche, an avowed and defiant antagonist of the essential spirit of Christianity, was incidentally illustrated in a quotation from his writings in an editorial of The Outlook of November 8. The political philosophy of Treitschke is given to American readers in his two volumes on "Politics," the value of which work is enhanced by the Introduction by Dr. Balfour and the Foreword by President Lowell.[1] They have neither the crystalline clearness of Aristotle's "Politics," nor the poetic beauty of Plato's "Republic," nor the wealth and political information of President Lowell's work on "Government and Parties in Continental Europe," nor the moral illumination of Dr. Mulford's "Nation." Professor von Treitschke is not more logical than Ralph Waldo Emerson. He states his convictions and expects his pupils to accept them upon their evident truth as axioms. This method of instruction has its advantages, but among them are not coherence and consistency. His views are often difficult to reconcile, a fact which makes it no easy task to interpret his philosophy. The following summary may, however, serve to indicate both his method and something of his spirit and his doctrine.

"The state is the people legally constituted," "the public force for offense and defense." Contrasting it with the family and the church, "we may say that power is the vital principle of the state, as faith is that of the church and love that of the family." It is not founded upon any contract expressed or implied. "The attempt to present it as something artificial, following upon a natural condition, has fallen completely into discredit." It is "primordial and necessary," "as enduring as history, and no less essential to mankind than speech."

"The state is not the whole of a nation's life, for its function is only to surround the whole, regulating and protecting it." Yet it is "better fitted than any other corporate body to take charge of the well-being and civilizing of the people." It is its duty to foster art and organize and maintain education, even compulsory education. But this educational work is to be conducted, not for the benefit of the individuals, but for the benefit of the state. There must always be classes in society, apparently hereditary classes. "Millions must plow and forge and dig in order that a few thousands may write and paint and study."

The first attribute of the state is power. "Its very personality is power; . . . its highest moral duty is to uphold that power." "The injunction to assert itself remains always absolute. Weakness must always be condemned as the most disastrous and despicable of crimes, the unforgivable sin of politics." This power in the state is incompatible with the recognition of any power over it. "How proudly and truly statesmanlike is Gustavus Adolphus's exclamation, 'I recognize no power over me but God and the conqueror's sword'!" It is this power in the state which brings unity out of the multiplicity of clashing interests in society. Law and peace and order can come only from the power which stands above society armed with the strength to restrain its wild passions. ". . . The state it is which brings justice and mercy into this struggling world." As power is the first attribute of the state and the maintenance of that power its first duty to the citizen, so obedience is the first duty of the citizen to the state—if we understand von Treitschke aright, the supreme duty. "The individual is here given no choice whether he will or will not act in full accordance with the law." "The principles of common law are so absolutely binding that they are synonymous with duty." The question whether the individual may fight with his state in an unrighteous war presents to Treitschke no difficulty. "The individual should feel himself a member of his state, and as such have courage to take its errors upon him."

Various states are a necessity, and with the growth of culture the differences between nations become more sharply defined. Increased facilities of communication do not tend to any blending of national peculiarities. There can be no hope of peace founded on

[1] Politics. By Heinrich von Treitschke. Translated from the German by Blanche Dugdale and Torben De Bille, with an Introduction by the Rt. Hon. Arthur James Balfour, M.S., F.R.S., LL.D., D.C.L., and a Foreword by A. Lawrence Lowell, President of Harvard University. Two volumes. The Macmillan Company, New York. $7 a set.

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an anticipation that national differences of temperament and interest will disappear, and as long as those differences exist war will continue. "Without war no state could be. All those we know of arose through war, and the protection of their members by armed force remains their primary and essential task. War, therefore, will endure to the end of history, as long as there is multiplicity of states. The laws of human thoughts and of human nature forbid any alternative; neither is one to be wished for." International arbitration, except of minor differences, is therefore neither possible nor desirable. The state cannot surrender its sovereignty to a superior power without self-destruction. It is true that it can make treaties, and "the treaty is binding as long as the contracting state exists." Yet "every state reserves to itself the right to be judge of its own treaties," and treaties "are made on the understanding that they are only to endure while the conditions of power between the contracting parties are not totally altered." "No state can pledge its future to another," and "all treaties lose their force at the very moment when war is declared between the contracting parties; moreover, every sovereign state has the undoubted right to declare war at its pleasure, and is consequently entitled to repudiate its treaties."

Thus it would appear from Treitschke's philosophy that the sovereign state which has unlimited power and which can dictate to the consciences of its citizens whose whole duty is fulfilled by obedience to its commands, and which can make war whenever it chooses to do so, is incapacitated from taking any effective steps toward relieving the world by a permanent peace from war, which is one of the world's greatest curses. Nevertheless, "the progress of culture must make wars both shorter and rarer, for with every step it renders men's lives more harmonious." Moreover, "civilized nations suffer far more than savages from the economic ravages of war, especially through the disturbance of the artificially existing credit system, which may have frightful consequences in a modern war. . . . Therefore wars must become rarer and shorter, owing to man's natural horror of bloodshed, as well as to the size and quality of modern armies." Why this progress toward shorter and rarer wars and longer terms of peace intervening should not finally result in the end of war and the establishment of some better method of settling questions of right between conflicting states Treitschke does not tell us.

We shall not yield to the temptation to give here The Outlook's philosophy of the state, but content ourselves with simply pointing out what seem to us to be some of the truths and some of the errors curiously commingled in Treitschke's singularly indiscriminating philosophy.

It is true that the state is not an artificial organization; but there are no facts which justify the statement that it is a primordial organization existing from the beginning of time. Such facts as history and prehistoric traditions afford indicate that the family was the first government, that out of it grew the clan, the tribe, the state. It is certain that the law of the family is also the law of the state, and that the only just government in either family or state is a government maintained and administered for the benefit of the governed. It is true that the state must equip itself with power sufficient to enable it to perform its primary duty, the protection of persons and property; but the mere possession of power is not a virtue and can hardly be called a duty. The primary virtue of the state is justice; the primary duty of the state is to govern justly. Power is simply the necessary instrument for the performance of this duty. The greater the power of the state, the greater its vice if it uses that power unjustly. It is true that sovereignty is an attribute of the state. But it is not true that this sovereignty is either unalienable or indivisible. The Empire of Germany is composed of states which have surrendered a part of their sovereignty to the Empire. This is equally true of the British Empire and the United States. In the British Empire the colonies are free but not independent sovereignties; in the United States the States have surrendered a portion of their sovereignty to the Central Government, have retained a portion, and have provided means for the peaceful settlement of any disputes which may arise respecting the rights of these respective sovereignties.

It is true that a treaty is not eternal, and that in case conditions change a state may elect to give notice of its abrogation. But it is not true that the state may at its option at any time abolish its treaties by arbitrarily declaring war.

It is true that states have sometimes gained great moral advantage in development of national character from war, and that war has

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sometimes proved "a remedy for an ailing nation." So it is true that a patient recovering from typhoid fever has sometimes found himself in better health than ever before. But he would be a crazy physician who should prescribe a typhoid epidemic as a sanitary measure. It is true that no man can wisely promise that international arbitration or any other scheme will put an end to war. But it is also true that no man has any intellectual right to say that wars will continue to the end of time. Wars between the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms of England, wars between the provinces of France, have ceased with the merger of these separate states in the respective Kingdoms of England and France, and a similar process has produced a similar result in our own time in the creation of a united Germany and a united Italy. He would be a bold man who would affirm that a similar method will eventually unite all the civilized states of the world in a common brotherhood of nations, but not more bold than he who asserts that such a union of states is not possible and not even desirable.

The American public are indebted to the translators and editors who have given to non-German readers this very clear and authoritative statement of the political philosophy of militarism. The best refutation of a false philosophy is a clear-cut definition of it.

PERCIVAL LOWELL AND HIS WORK

BY HENRY NORRIS RUSSELL

PROFESSOR OF ASTRONOMY IN PRINCETON UNIVERSITY

THE recent sudden death of Dr. Percival Lowell deprives American astronomy of one of its most distinctive and picturesque figures. Man of letters as well as man of science, his writings, even on technical themes, possessed a piquant style of their own, which, in addition to the intrinsic interest of their subject, makes his more popular works eminently readable.

The observatory at Flagstaff, Arizona, which he founded and sustained at his own expense for many years, has made noteworthy contributions to astronomical observation and discovery. Some of the most important of these are not as widely known as they should be—notably the epoch-making announcement made a few years ago by Dr. Slipher, Lowell's principal assistant, that the nebulæ, especially those of a spiral form, were moving through space with tremendous velocities, amounting in some cases to more than five hundred miles per second, and the later discovery that some of these nebulæ were in rotation at almost as rapid a rate. These discoveries, abundantly confirmed since by observations made elsewhere, open up a field that had previously seemed quite inaccessible, and enlarge our knowledge of the extent of the universe to a very impressive degree.

But that portion of Dr. Lowell's work which has most captivated the public imagination consists undoubtedly of his observations of the planet Mars, and the deductions which he drew from them.

Under ordinary circumstances, Mars is a heartbreaking object for the observer. The larger and less interesting details upon his ruddy disc are indeed visible telescopically on any good night, but the finer markings are very delicate, and flash into view only by glimpses in the too rare moments when the ceaseless turmoil of the atmosphere through which we must look dies down and permits us to see the planet with relatively little blurring of its finer lineaments. Such favorable moments are probably as numerous at Flagstaff (which was especially selected as the site of the observatory on this very account), but they occur also at many, if not at all, other stations, though somewhat rarely, and the details to which Lowell devoted so much study have been seen by many other observers and in many places. There is, however, a remarkable diversity in the descriptions of their appearance given by those who have studied them at first hand. Lowell, and three or four others, describe these markings as fine, uniform, straight lines, sometimes double, which cross both the light and dark portions of the planet's surface in a complex network of geometrical precision of design—three, five, or even ten at once meeting at the same point, where a little round dot marks their intersection. On the other hand, experienced observers such as Professor W. H.

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Pickering and M. Desloges, after years of study of the planet, report that narrow straight lines are rare, most of the markings being broad, diffuse, and more or less curved, and some of them breaking up in the moments when they are most clearly seen into a complex "mosaic" of smaller details. Still other observers, notably the keen-eyed Barnard, have never once seen narrow straight lines upon the planet.

How can these extraordinary differences between the testimony of eye-witnesses be reconciled? There can be no doubt at all that each observer is drawing and describing as accurately as pencil or words permit just what his eyes tell him; and it is wholly incredible that any one of them, during years of frequent observation, has failed to see the planet clearly on even a single night—for "good seeing," while more frequent at some observatories than at others, is a monopoly of none.

To the writer, after a somewhat careful investigation, only one explanation appears reasonable, namely, the influence of what is called the "personal equation."

Between the entrance of light into an observer's eye and his record of his observation, whatever this may be, intervenes a process of extreme complexity going on in the recesses of the brain, which we can follow only with difficulty, and mainly by its effects. In so simple a case as that when a man merely passes a telegraph key to record the time when he sees a thing happen one may be two or three tenths of a second ahead of another—not once, or by chance, but again and again—by almost the same amount. One man's nervous system works slowly, while his neighbor, perhaps, anticipates the event.

Again, in what seems like a very simple matter, looking at a star and estimating its brightness in comparison with others near by, it has been found by long experience that if the observer knows in advance what to expect—for example, that the star he is studying is getting brighter night by night—his judgment of the facts before his eyes will be warped by this knowledge, no matter how faithfully he may try to clear his mind of all prejudice. The preconceived opinion unconsciously, whether he will or not, influences the very report of his senses, and to secure trustworthy observations, it has been recognized everywhere, and for many years, he must keep himself in ignorance of what he might expect to see.

In the far more complex case of observations of planetary details, concerning which all observers agree that they can be seen only in the best moments for a few seconds at a time, similar principles are doubtless to be applied.

One man's eyes may refuse to report a marking to the brain as being straight or continuous unless it is perfectly clear that there are no bends or gaps in it, while another man's eyes report it as straight unless the bends in it are clearly visible, and continuous unless gaps on it are unmistakable. And so the whole story goes. And if preconceptions produce so great an effect upon the simple estimation of the brightness of a star, how much more must they do so in the interpretation of these delicate and evanescent details? There is of course no question of the sincerity of the observers; the process is subconscious, as well as involuntary, and the observer, as he works, knows nothing about it.

What the real character of these Martian markings—the famous "canals"—may be the writer, for one, hesitates to decide. The question may be cleared up some day by having the principal observers look with their telescopes (on cloudy nights!) at artificial planets—globes marked and spotted in various ways—thus obtaining some idea of the relation between what they see and what really is there. But no such tests have yet been made on a sufficiently large scale.

Little time remains to speak of Dr. Lowell's theoretical explanation of his observations. There are undoubtedly seasonal changes on the planet; the white caps at the poles shrink in summer, and the dark areas near them grow larger and darker. Lowell believed the polar caps to be composed of snow, and the dark areas to be regions covered with vegetation, which is watered by the melting snow and grows more clearly visible. But it seems very doubtful—though matters are not certainly settled—whether Mars can get hot enough to melt snow even in summer; and other substances than water might change their form at a lower temperature, and, spreading in vapor through the planet's atmosphere, affect the color of the surface soil, perhaps by some chemical process, though no life were present. The existing evidence appears to be insufficient to decide. Still more is this true of the brilliant series of speculations concerning the "canals." According to Lowell, their geometrical character is clear proof that they are of artificial construction.

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What one sees is not the watercourses (the watercourses themselves are only twenty meters or more in width), but irrigated regions on each side of the watercourses, which are too narrow to be seen by themselves—just as Egypt borders the Nile.

As the polar caps melt the canals darken, first near the poles, then in lower latitudes. This "wave of quickening" advances alternately in opposite ways, from the north and south poles. Hence, says he, it cannot be due to a natural flow. The water must be *pumped* along the canals, and hence the intelligent race which constructed the canals is still alive to work them.

To establish, as Lowell has done in the argument just briefly sketched, the possibilities of methods by which the existence of intelligent inhabitants on a planet might be detected by our limited means of observation from a distance never less than thirty-five million miles is an achievement of no mean order. But here, even more than in the other cases, it seems necessary to return the Scotch verdict of "Not proven." It is still very uncertain whether the geometrical design is to be found on the surface of the planet or in the subconscious mind of the observer; and in many other points of the argument, though there is no one place at which the critic may say, "This is inconsistent with the established facts," there are many places where alternative explanations are possible and often apparently more probable.

Final judgment should not, and cannot, yet be pronounced in the case. But, whatever this may ultimately be, the name of Percival Lowell will be remembered as that of an enthusiastic lover of science who, by his own investigations and those made possible by his interest and support, has made permanent contributions to the sum of human knowledge.

THE READER'S VIEW

OUR CRIMINAL ASH-HEAP

The annual fire waste in this country amounts to about one-quarter of a billion dollars, and a large part of this tremendous waste—probably more than half, as many prominent underwriters say—is due to incendiarism for gain. For this unruly state of affairs public sentiment is largely to blame. When suspicious-looking fires occur, the popular feeling, often expressed, is: "The insurance companies should worry. We have paid them enough; let them pay their losses." A common expression is often heard even among substantial business men, "Another fellow selling out to the insurance companies." This is a misnomer. He is not selling out to the insurance companies. The firebug simply robs the fire taxpayers.

A recent report states that a juror, who with his fellow-jurymen had voted to acquit a firebug, told a deputy fire marshal, "We knew he was guilty; but if we convicted him, how could he collect his insurance?" What a commentary on common sense and justice!

Insurance companies only collect and distribute the fire tax, and the stockholders of these companies are bound to make a profit. The public pays all the fire losses; hammer this fact home whenever the fire waste is under discussion.

Public sentiment should be so strongly crystallized against incendiarism that the State fire marshal could have the active co-operation of every property-owner and the courts, in order to bring the firebugs to justice.

The largest factor in reducing the cost of fire insurance is the reduction of the fire waste. Taxable values should be preserved as far as possible, and from the merchant's point of view money saved to his community by reducing the fire insurance tax means more goods sold and more bills paid. K. NEUTSON, Secretary.

Property Owners' Association,
Red Wing, Minnesota.

A PROTEST

In The Outlook of October 4 there appears an article by Mr. George S. Dougherty, in which he states that "seventy-five per cent of the pickpockets of America are either Jews or of Jewish descent." I am convinced that there is no foundation for such a charge. Several years ago General Bingham, then Police Commissioner of New York, made a similar statement in an article published in the "North American Review," which he subsequently retracted. I have recently written to Mr. Dougherty on this subject, asking him for the data on which he based his accusation. The only reply that he has vouchsafed is: "You are questioning my statement. If you can disprove it, you will be satisfied, and so will I."

This reverses the rule of evidence which obtains in all American tribunals. One would suppose that he who makes charges of a serious character, either against an individual or a people, is under the duty of furnishing his proofs in substantiation of the charge whenever his statement is challenged.

LOUIS MARSHALL.

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New York.

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BY THE WAY

What a nautical journal declares to have been "one of the most extraordinary voyages ever made across the Atlantic" was recently completed by the Vigilant, a small tug belonging to New York, which port she left for Cardiff, Wales, October 11. She experienced terrific weather, and sent out S. O. S. calls when the captain feared she would founder. The steamer Ryndam took off the captain and twelve of the Vigilant's crew. Three men—Ferguson, a Scot; Walsh, an Irishman; and John Smith, an American—elected to stick by the tug. They brought her into port November 1, having been at their posts fifty hours without food, water, or sleep. Scotland, Ireland, and America may well be proud of men like these.

In the letters of Lady Bessborough, a clever Englishwoman of Napoleonic times, a story is told of a famous document called the "Intercepted Letter,' a state paper captured by the French from the English. One phrase in this letter, "obstinate fools," was rendered by the French translator, "*des Gentilhommes décidés*." This translation was ridiculed by William Pitt in conversation with the Duke of Devonshire. The latter wittily responded: "It is not so ill done; there is some affinity between obstinate and *décidé*, and most gentlemen *are* fools!"

There is always a field for the inventor of kitchen conveniences. A recent invention of this sort will, it is said, enable the housewife to unscrew the cap of the most refractory fruit jar. It consists of a circular band which is slipped around the body of the jar. Projecting handles enable the holder to get a vise-like grip on the jar itself, so that it is held securely with one hand without danger of breakage, while the other hand is used in turning the cap.

Spain is almost the only country of Europe to which the traveler and the lover of tales of travel can now turn with comfort, as free from the terror of warring hosts. A writer in "Harper's Magazine" tells alluringly of "Adventuring into Aragon." In one of the towns visited, Broto, even the post-card—"in these days when the morning mail brings a post-card from the Taj Mahal or the Great Wall of China"—was unknown. In another, Jaca, throngs of pilgrims come to be cured of ailments, and a simple faith is still theirs. One of them "told us that when he was a lad of fourteen his mother brought him all the weary way from France to be cured of a fever. 'And,' he added, 'the fever left me after twenty years.'"

John Marshall, Chief Justice of the United States, was a remarkable man. One of the most remarkable things concerning him is the fact, to which attention is called by the appearance of a new biography, that he was one of a family of fifteen children, all of whom lived to maturity and nearly all of whom enjoyed a ripe old age.

In the matter of protecting poultry from human marauders, a poultryman says, the dog is a big help. A bull terrier owned by this poultryman used to go out on the main road and wait for suspicious-looking persons to pass. When one came in sight he never made a sound, but just dropped behind and followed with his nose about two inches from the man's legs. The dog never did anything, but the moral effect was tremendous! "I don't pretend," says the dog's owner, "to know how to train a dog to do that. The terrier picked it up himself. No bark, no rush, just went sniffing quietly along behind him!"

One of the most interesting chapters in "The Wrecker," by Robert Louis Stevenson, says Birge Harrison in the "Century," was founded on an incident at Barbizon. Harrison and half a dozen of his young artist friends had arrived late one evening at the little place and had been obliged to sleep in the hotel's annex. One of the party woke at three A.M., and, unable to sleep, rose silently, seized a pillow, and, moving from cot to cot, delivered to each occupant an impartial and sounding thwack! Pandemonium and a grand pillow-fight ensued. Stevenson and his wife, it seems, occupied the room below the one in which these revels took place. On meeting the artist at breakfast the sleep-cheated novelist dryly observed: "I had forgotten, Harrison, that we were ever such reptiles!" But he made good use of the incident later.

English oak, says a book called "Amateur Joinery in the Home," is the most beautiful and durable of all the varieties of oak suitable for joinery, but it is very liable to warp unless thoroughly air-dried and seasoned by exposure. "We have known boards sawn from beams, taken out of houses more than a hundred years old, to warp immediately to a considerable extent," the authors state. The finest quality of this wood is now by no means common, though at one time vast forests of oak covered the greater part of England.

"Now that's what I call extravagance," remarked a salesman in a New York department store, addressing a woman customer. He was not referring to his then present customer, but to a sale he had made the day before. "I wouldn't have minded the six dozen napkins she bought for two hundred dollars, but when she took two tablecloths at one hundred dollars each, I said to myself, 'She's a bit too lavish with her money.' I think she had just come into a legacy, and perhaps that explains it." Perhaps it does. "Easy come, easy go" accounts for many big expenditures among the shoppers of New York and other great cities.

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